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ABSTRACT

The articles in this compilation from issues of "Leisure Today"--a membership service which appears as an insert in the "Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance"-- address the trends, realities, and futures in the development of recreational and leisure programs. Readings have been selected on: (1) population dynamics and leisure; (2) coping with stress through leisure; (3) childrens' play; (4) employee recreation; (5) campus recreation; (6) leisure in correctional institutions; (7) tourism; (8) evaluating recreation programs; (9) computer applications in leisure programing; (10) managing leisure services; and (11) careers in leisure and recreation. (JD)

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Leisure Today:
Selected Readings
Volume III

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Leisure Today:
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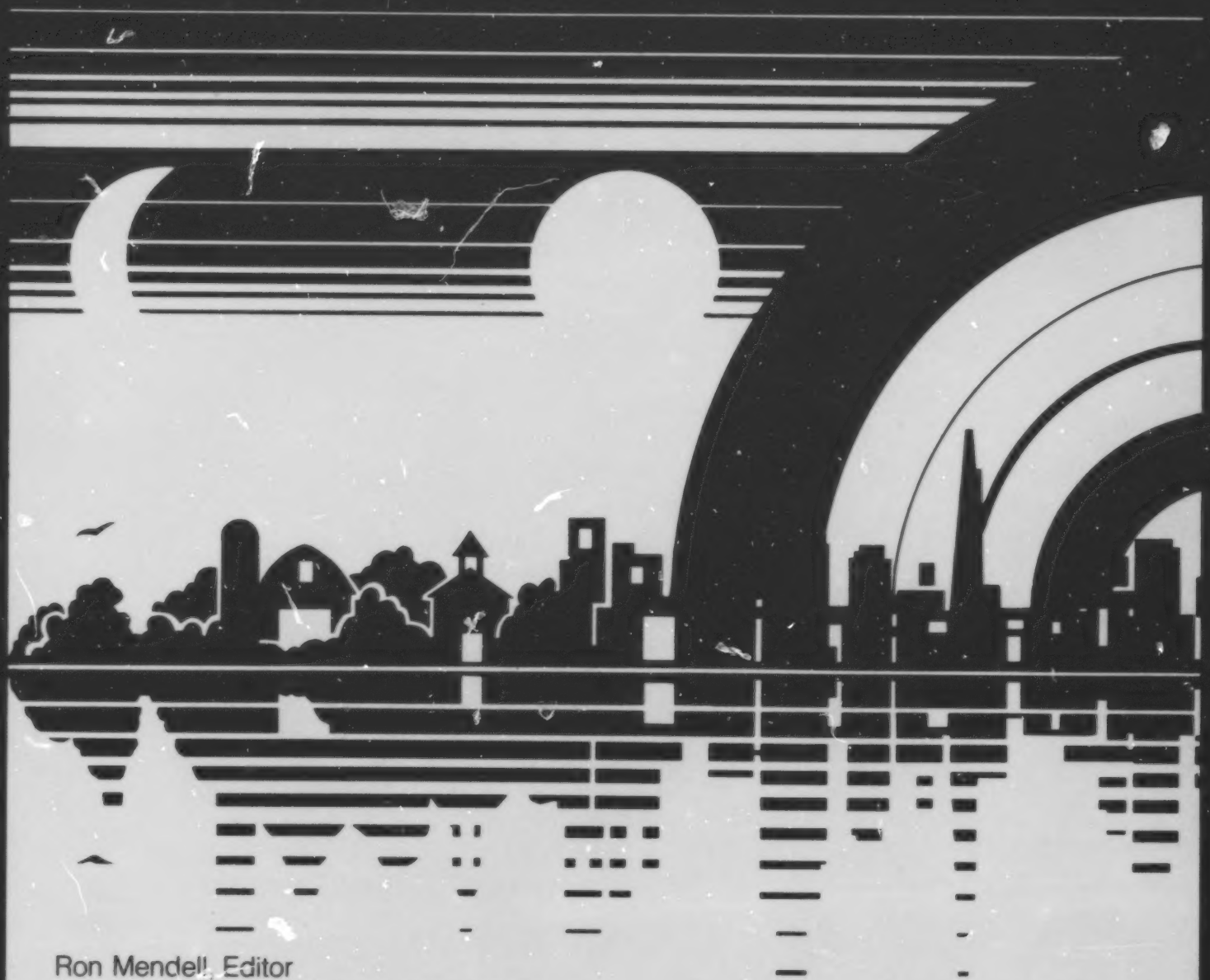

Ron Mendell, Editor
American Association for Leisure and Recreation
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The American Alliance is an educational organization, structured for the purposes of supporting, encouraging, and providing assistance to member groups and their personnel throughout the nation as they seek to initiate, develop, and conduct programs in health, leisure, and movement-related activities for the enrichment of human life.

Alliance objectives include:

1. Professional growth and development—to support, encourage, and provide guidance in the development and conduct of programs in health, leisure, and movement-related activities which are based on the needs, interests, and inherent capacities of the individual in today's society.
2. Communication—to facilitate public and professional understanding and appreciation of the importance and value of health, leisure, and movement-related activities as they contribute toward human well-being.
3. Research—to encourage and facilitate research which will enrich the depth and scope of health, leisure, and movement-related activities; and to disseminate the findings to the profession and other interested and concerned publics.
4. Standards and guidelines—to further the continuous development and evaluation of standards within the profession for personnel and programs in health, leisure, and movement-related activities.
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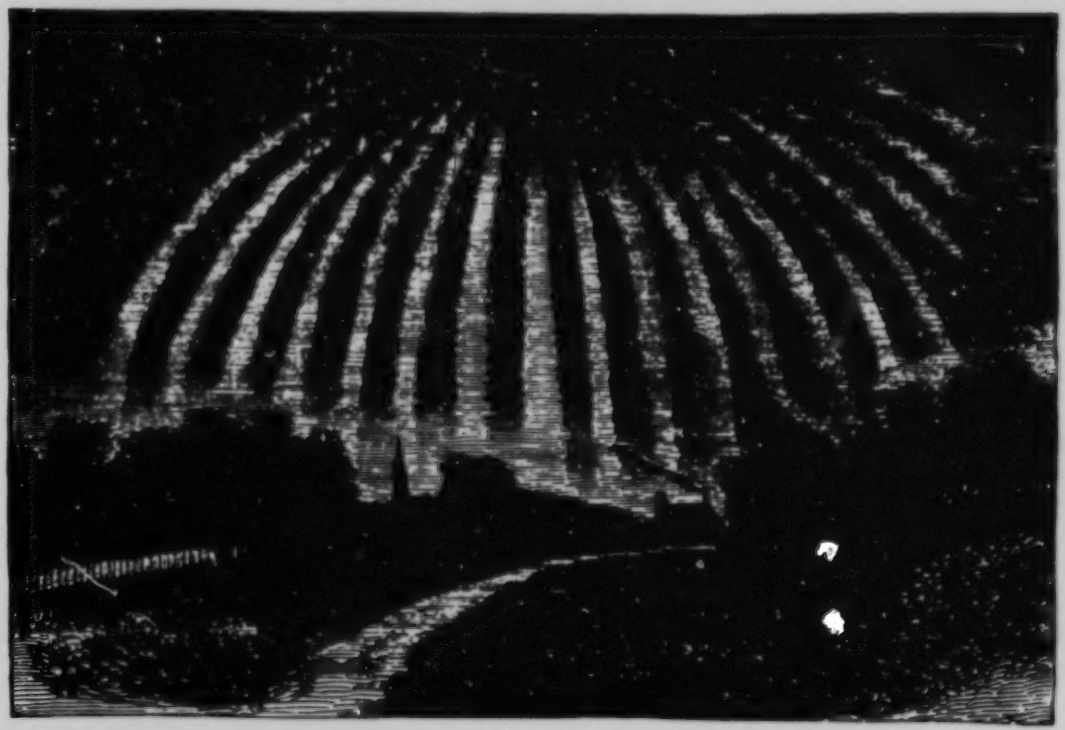
Preface



"The most reliable way to anticipate the future is by understanding the present."

—John Naisbitt, *Megatrends*

The American Association for Leisure and Recreation (AALR) reports on leisure events and behaviors through its primary membership service, *Leisure Today*, which appears as an insert in the *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance*. Over the past twelve and a half years, 26 issues of *Leisure Today* have been directed at current problems, opportunities, and concerns of the recreation/leisure profession. The guest editors of each issue painted a picture with words and graphics around a particular theme. Many of these articles were directed at history, many more at the state-of-the-art, and some toward the future. They represent where we came from, where we are, and where we are going in recreation and leisure.

The premise of this third volume of selected readings from *Leisure Today* is, "Yesterday > Today < Tomorrow." By nature, a readings book is an historical view, but, assuming that we have learned by our experiences, tomorrow is shaped by our thinking and actions of today. The greater than (>) and less than (<) signs in the basic premise suggest that we take all that has happened in the past (yesterday), direct it into current practice (today), and that, as a result of current practice and events, the profession will be strengthened in the future (tomorrow).

I have always liked the song, "Somewhere Over the Rainbow." It represents peace and richness, searching and beauty, rain and sunshine. Recreators, recreation, and recreationists have all these ingredients at play. We continue to search, offer, and share. Our history and our future have and will have clouds and sunshine. The sun is rising on our future and the moon is passing on our past. Tomorrow is another day and many of the events will be a result of our todays and yesterdays. You can't catch a rainbow—

rainbows never touch the ground. Even so, by our very nature, we have and will continue to search for that pot of gold, and we will be better off because of the search. Our profession and *Leisure Today* cannot be accused of hanging on to yesterday and being afraid to face tomorrow.

In this volume, individual issue themes are used as section titles. Each of the guest editors selected the most representative articles in their issues, preserving the concept of "Yesterday > Today < Tomorrow." Built into each major theme is a look at the past, the state-of-the-art, and statements and/or questions to direct your thinking about the future.

The volume begins with sections that deal with whom we serve—people. Questions of who, what, and where are answered along with elements of living that affect people—elements such as stress and play. We then move into professional aspects of how to serve them: programming for selected environments, tourism, evaluation, computer applications and management of leisure services. The volume concludes with a universal concern—employment and careers.

Selected Readings III is a compilation of articles taken from the last eleven issues of *Leisure Today*. The editor is indebted to his two associate editors, eleven guest editors, more than forty *Leisure Today* editorial board members, more than 80 authors whose articles appear in this volume, and more than 150 authors whose articles were included in *Leisure Today*, although not in this volume of readings. Further thank yous are extended to Dr. Steve McCool of the University of Montana who served as *Leisure Today* board chairman from 1978 to 1981, and to Dr. Barbara Bates of San Francisco State University for her constant concern and support of *Leisure Today*.

Appreciation is also extended to Barbara Sampson (AALR executive director) and Barbara Beach (managing editor of JOPERD) and their respective staffs for their assistance and encouragement.

Further, I would like to thank Ms. Suma Clark and Ms. Judith Hall of the Middle Tennessee State University (MTSU) Publications and Graphics Department for their work on the front cover, and the MTSU Faculty Research Committee for their generous assistance.

As leaders in the field, we hope you will inform others about the availability of this publication. We encourage you also to direct your comments, reactions, and suggestions about the publication to us so that further volumes can benefit from your experience and input.

Ron Mendell, Chair
Leisure Today Board
1981–1984

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Section I

Diana R. Dunn, Ph.D.
Population Dynamics
(October 1981)

Dean, College of Health, Physical Education
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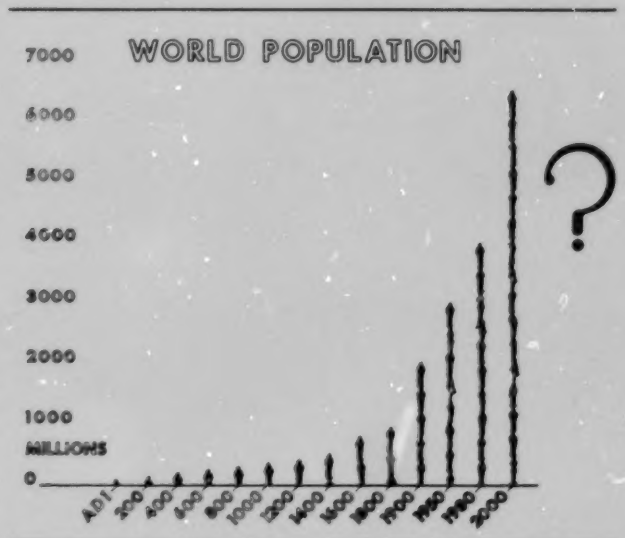
We know that the implications drawn from the census data are becoming increasingly critical to our ability to be proactive professionally. Fertility, mortality, and migration, for example, represent the most important factors responsible for patterns of population size, composition, and distribution. Thoughtful analysis is urgently needed, lest we continue to view our nation and its people in an historical context—familiar and comfortable—yet obsolete.

—Diana Dunn
Editor

Population Dynamics and Demography

A. H. Underhill

The human species is rapidly filling its niche on the globe. Figure 1 dramatically illustrates what is happening. It took thousands of years for the world population to reach one billion, only 100 years for it to double to two billion; only 80 years for that to double to four billion; and it is projected to jump to close to seven billion in the next 20 years. Most of this growth will be in the less developed countries in Asia, Africa, and South America. The Global 2000 Report to the President paints a gloomy picture. Based on projections of current trends and policies, by the year 2000 the gap between the richest and the poorest countries will have increased; there will be fewer resources per capita; we will have only one half the present oil; water per capita will be one-third less; 40% of the forests in the less developed countries will have been destroyed, and with them 15-20% of currently existing animal and plant species; the real price of food will have increased 100% and the real price of energy 150%. These projections suggest that the human species is rapidly approaching a crash decline. While these observations may appear foreign to recreation as it is usually defined, recreation and leisure as we know them are in fact not enjoyed by two-thirds of the world's inhabitants. Yet what happens to them, their environment, and their standard of living has an impact on us. Our affluence cannot continue if their standards decline.



Demographic Changes

While it is important for us to concern ourselves with the world's demographic problems since we are very much a part of that world, even today the United States faces different subproblems. The population is moving out of the cities, beyond the suburbs to rural areas. The increase in communications through electronic media will undoubtedly increase the trend away from urban concentrations. From the recreation view point we will be facing a quite different situation as it becomes necessary to decentralize.

Figure 2 shows the population of the United States by age groups for 1970, 1980, and projected for 1990. Two observations are particularly significant to us. First, the population is aging. In 1990 approximately one-third of our population will be over 50. In 1970 only about one-quarter was that old. The second is the "bulge in the serpent"—the baby boom of the post WWII era moving through the demographic snake. (Note boxed entries in Figure 2.) This "age class" bulging through population precludes straightline projections. It has already caused problems for school planners, for the housing market, and for recreation purveyors. By the end of this century it will contribute further to an aging America. Meeting the needs of older citizens will be the greatest recreation problem.

Another emerging United States population trend is an emigration to the Sun Belt, an area with its own recreation pursuits and seasons. The expanding southern and western population will require redistribution of recreation program monies and facilities.

Coupled with these demographic changes are tremendous advances in computers and electronic communications. With cybernation comes shorter working hours, more leisure, more need to escape the boredom of automated work, and more need for creativity in leisure pursuits. The communications breakthrough means less travel, greater productivity from workers working at home, revamping of education systems and calendars.

The Future

The world food and energy shortage will have other implications for the American lifestyle. As the largest food-producing nation in the world America must seek to close the world gap between food and population in spite of greater scarcity and higher cost of energy-related fertilizers. Additionally this country will be forced to conserve productive agricultural land from erosion, soil depletion, and particularly from diversion to other uses such as industry, housing and even recreation. As available water per

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Photo: John Douglass Bender

capita drops and as the population shifts toward the drier Southwest we will be forced to conserve and recycle water. This will require hard choices concerning the use of available resources.

In many ways, even in this country, the picture is bleak. Certainly, humankind is not exempt from the laws of population dynamics that govern other living species. We have succeeded in modifying many of the forces that control populations. Our medical and sanitary knowledge has curtailed epidemics and eliminated diseases that shorten life spans. Agricultural research and applied technology have almost kept food production per capita up to the burgeoning world population. But that same technology has produced weapons so awesome that world overpopulation could be eliminated by a few explosions and the accompanying fallout. While much of the industrialized world is practicing birth control and planned parenthood, that practice does not seem to be reaching the less developed countries. In many countries, the greater the stress from declining food per capita, the greater the birth rate and the acceleration of the gap between population and food.

On the other hand, the resilience and hope of the human race was expressed by former Secretary of State Edmund Muskie on the occasion of the release of the Global 2000 Report to the President. He said: "Since the days of Malthus, those who predicted doom for humanity have been wrong. They have been wrong because they discounted the vision of nations and the willingness of the Earth's people to respond to the need for change."

If we are again to respond to this need, the leadership must come from this country. The quality of such response, such change, and the hopes for success, may well depend on the creativity we display in the use of our leisure. The next two decades hold forth a challenge in management of resources, leisure, and recreation to show that we can help all of the Earth's people make the kind of changes needed for survival.

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Figure 2. Total U.S. population 1970-1980-1990 by age group (in millions)

	Total	0-19	20-34	35-49	50-64	65+
1970	209	76.9	45.6	34.8	30.7	20.9
	100%	37%	22%	17%	14%	10%
1980	240	69.5	61.2	40.2	43.8	36.3
	100%	29%	25%	17%	13%	16%
1970-1980 Percent change	+15%	−10%	+34%	+15%	+7%	+73%
1990	265	64.5	62.2	51.5	35.8	51
	100%	24%	23%	20%	14%	[illegible]
1980-1990 Percent change	+10%	−7%	−1.5%	+28%	+9%	+40%
1970-1990 Percent change	+27%	−16%	+36%	+48%	+16%	+144%

Leisure and Family Change: 1960-1990

John R. Kelly

An outlook report of the MIT-Harvard Joint Center for Urban Studies, *The Nation's Families: 1960-1990* (1980) by George Masnick and Mary Jo Bane, examines trends in household composition, family structure dynamics, and employment to project probabilities for 1990.

Major Trends

The two foci of the MIT-Harvard report are household/family composition and women's employment and parenting roles. Among the most salient household trends are the following:

- In the next decade, households made up of married couples will increase only slightly, while single person and single head households will show a large increase.
- Fewer households will have children living at home.
- The low marriage, high divorce, and low birth rates of the cohorts now in their 20s and 30s are consistent with the trends prior to 1940 and may be expected to continue.

Women's role trends include:

- Not only are more women employed, but more of the employed are married.
- Greater continuity of employment promises to increase the relative contribution of working wives to family income from the current 25%.
- The major changes in women's work roles are just beginning, and include the likelihood of more two-worker families, a higher proportion of continuous full-time employment, and decreased fertility.
- Single-woman-headed households, with and without children, will continue to increase dramatically.

Before examining implications of these and related trends for leisure resources and styles, we will look more closely at the changes.

Table 1 displays some of the expected changes in household composition. Most dramatic is the increase in single head households, from 35% in 1960 to 57% projected in 1990. That is an increase of almost 16 million households headed by women and 4 million headed by men. Of these, almost 7½ million will include children being reared by a single parent, 90% by the mother. Of the 20 million more households expected by 1990, 16.8 million will be headed by unattached individuals. There will be 7 million more men living alone or unmarried but with children, 2.6 million more women rearing children alone, and 7.2 million more women living outside of families.

Conversely, there will be a much lower proportion of households headed by couples, off 20% from 1960. The number without children is expected to stabilize, and the number with four or more children to continue to fall.

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Photo: Patricia Gallagan Hurley

Married couples without resident children—those who have not had children and those whose children have been launched—will make up 27% of households in 1990 and couples with children at home 28%.

What is indicated is a return to pre-World War II trends of later marriage, fewer children, and higher divorce rates. More adults will postpone marriage and more of the married will postpone or forego having children. Families will be smaller, the childrearing period of the life course more compact, and marital dissolutions result in more formerly married persons heading households.

Couple-headed households are still the model category, but just barely. Adults will have more and longer periods of the life course alone—before marriage and after marriage. In fact, by 1990 two-thirds of the households—60 million—will be without children in residence.

It is important to note that those living alone—formerly married, widowed, and so on at any point in time—are not the same ones who are alone at a different point. Rather, by 1990 the life course of American adults is expected to be even more varied than at present. More persons will experience a variety of conditions—marriage and divorce, living alone and married with and without children at home—than before. The key to understanding changing life conditions is in the concept of *transitions*. More and more individuals will be in some stage of fundamental transition, than ever before. The life course will be less regular for most persons and require more adaptations to changing conditions.

Other factors likely will be the greater significance of non-familial households in which single people form some kind of residential community. Such residential communities meet a number of needs, both economic and social. Other related probabilities are that single parents will experience income losses, that divorce will usually result in housing changes, and that more and more children will be cared for outside the home for major periods. Altogether just these changes would seem to require considerable adaptation by human service institutions.

Household Changes and Leisure

How will these household composition trends impact human services such as public recreation? A complete analysis would require careful examination of everything we know about the ecology, psychology, sociology, and economics of the various life conditions. Further, related changes would have to be cranked into the scenarios. On a simpler level, there are a number of rather straightforward implications.

The decrease in the proportion of the adult population engaged in childrearing means that the very real constraints of that responsibility will be experienced by individuals for less of their total life course. There will be longer periods before and after the childbearing and childrearing periods as well as more persons who do not become parents at all. Such a relief from the financial and schedule constraints of parenting should result in more discretionary income for leisure investments, a greater freedom to take on leisure experiences that do not require being home on schedule to relieve the babysitter, and more interest in clearly adult settings and activities.

The life course for more adults will involve change. Transitions in and out of marriage, to new residential contexts, and adding and subtracting parental obligations in divorce and remarriage mean that leisure may be called upon to contribute to adaptation to such changes. Some leisure may provide a stability in interests and relationships during changes in family contexts. At other times recreation may be chosen with the aim of finding new friends and companions. Leisure is frequently the social context for exploring and developing new relationships of intimacy and trust. When transitions follow events that are a threat to previous identities and self-images, leisure experiences may be sought that develop new self-definitions of worth and reinforce those that have been weakened. In short, leisure may be employed to substitute for some of the companionship, communication, personal support, and regular interaction lost in family transitions.

The most evident scarcity related to such transitions is in immediate community. Family has been the most common supplier of companionship and socialization for leisure (Kelly, 1977, 1978a). Alterations in that context cannot help but affect leisure participation and satisfaction. The common occurrence of social withdrawal following divorce can be alleviated by ongoing leisure commitments where old friends are met and new ones found who accept the singleness of the person experiencing the change. However, evidence that situational factors such as schedule and available companions have considerable influence on leisure decisions (Kelly, 1978b) suggests that the loss or gain of available household companions will have a powerful effect on leisure.

Table 1
Types of Households—1930, 1975, and 1990

Household Type	1960	1975	1990
Married couple heads	**74.7%**	**65.4%**	**54.9%**
No children	33.2%	34.0%	27.2%
1 child	14.1%	12.7%	11.4%
2-3 children	20.8%	16.0%	13.8%
4+ children	6.5%	2.7%	2.5%
Other male head	**3.1%**	**10.9%**	**16.0%**
Never married (NM)	3.2%	4.7%	6.8%
FM—no children	4.4%	5.6%	8.3%
FM—children	.5%	.6%	.9%
Other female head	**17.3%**	**23.7%**	**29.0%**
NM—no children	2.7%	3.7%	5.0%
NM—with children	.2%	.7%	1.3%
FM—no children	2.6%	4.2%	5.8%
FM—with children	2.1%	4.0%	5.0%
Widowed	9.7%	11.0%	11.0%
Total in 1000s	**52,793**	**72,508**	**92,711**

FM indicates divorced or separated, ie. "formerly married"

Table 2
Employment Characteristics of Households—1960, 1975, and 1990

Household employment	1960	1975	1990
Married couple—1 worker	43%	25%	14%
Married couple—2 workers	23%	30%	31%
Married couple—no worker	9%	11%	10%
Male head—worker	6%	8%	12%
Male head—not worker	3%	3%	4%
Female head			
worker with children	2%	3%	5%
non-worker with child	1%	2%	2%
worker alone	6%	9%	9%
non-worker alone	7%	9%	13%

Source: *The Nation's Families: 1960-1990*

On the other hand, singles who are not engaged in parenting will have more flexible schedules. A major resource for leisure will be the enhanced ability to go where and when opportunities are presented. Household changes are only one factor suggesting that recreation suppliers will need to develop greater variety in the times that programs are offered.

Continuing education may be especially sought during transitions, not only to meet new people but also for changes in both work and leisure.

Changes in Women's Roles

Many of the expected changes in women's life conditions are related to employment. The major trend is away from the family in which there is one worker per couple—a drop from 43 percent in 1960 to an anticipated 14 percent by 1990. Women are the basis of the change, as employed wives and employed singles. This singleness also doubles the proportion of employed men living alone.

Table 2 displays the trends from 1960 to 1990. The numbers are also impressive. Increases are expected of 7 million households of dual worker families, over 5 million employed single-male-headed households, and 2½ million employed female-headed households with children. The traditional households with one of the married couple employed becomes a minor category. Despite the population increase, there will be 5 million fewer households headed by couples with only one employed. There will also be 5½ million more households headed by women who are alone and not employed.

A significant change is in the continuity of women's employment. The trend is away from the M-shaped curve with the high points of employment incidence before child-bearing and after launching to more consistent employment patterns. Married women of all ages, especially mothers with children at home, show sharp increases in full-time employment rates since 1960. This greater continuity reflects changes in attitudes as well as opportunities and should provide increased work attachment and income for women. By 1990 more women will be working full-time, whether or not they are married and are mothers.

The kind of work taken by women varies widely. However, a high proportion are in the service occupations including retail sales. Such occupations are characterized by irregularity in work schedules and relatively low incomes. Women still receive substantially lower incomes than men for the same jobs. This and part-time employment contribute to the current data that women who are employed contribute only about 25% of family income. By 1990 the greater continuity of employment, raised consciousness concerning women's wages, legal redress, and the demands of women who are the sole support of a family should have lessened that income differential.

Women are also having fewer children later. About 20% of younger women do not expect to have children at all. The proportion having four or more children is also dropping to a level of less than 10%. As many as 40% of the women born in the 1950s may have no children or only one. Further, the delay in childbearing yields more child-free years in young adulthood in which to establish a work career.

Consequences of these changes are similar to those from the household composition trends. There will be more diversity in women's roles and in available resources of both

time and money. For single parent households the parent generally has to cope with a scarcity of both time and income. Two-worker families, on the other hand, have less time free from work-determination, but usually a greater income. A major intervening variable may turn out to be housing costs. In order to provide housing commensurate with expectations, the second income may be needed to meet regular payments rather than be available for discretionary spending. Employed women lower their expectations for homemaking and parenting. On the average, women who are not employed outside the home spend 44 hours a week on family care, while those who are employed manage on 25 hours. In the future, there may be more renegotiated sharing of family care responsibilities in two-parent families than has been evident through the 1970s.

Women's Role Changes and Leisure

The major increases in the numbers of two-worker and single-head households have quite different implications for leisure. Both involve major increases in both the proportion and continuity of women's employment.

Scarcities for the two worker households are those of time and schedule. In some cases, unless housing and other consumer costs devour the second income, there should be the possibility of trading some income for time efficiency. Child care, vacation travel, and household management efficiencies may be purchased to save time. On the other hand, two work schedules not only leave less time for child care, chauffeuring, volunteer leadership, support for school and recreation activities of children, and personal leisure, but the schedules must be synchronized for any joint activities. As a consequence, in order to exist at all joint leisure may have to be carefully arranged and given high priority in constructing family timetables.

On the other hand, women whose discretionary spending is not entirely dependent on the largesse of a male "provider" may also decide to invest some of that income in their own leisure, especially when they are outside the parenting period of the life course. This resource is not only one of greater discretionary income for the household, but alters the pattern of decision-making. Previous control of leisure through the allocation of financial resources by the sole worker is altered by dual worker status.

The scarcities of the single-head household depend not only on the level of income but also on family responsibilities. Ninety percent of single employed parents are women who suffer under the typically lower income received by women. Their time is constricted by parenting tasks and the lack of partners with whom to share them as well as by the job. Their limited income allows for little discretion, seldom enough for personal and expressive independent leisure. They are "vulnerable" in their dual scarcity. Their resources, on the other hand, may include an increased independence of decision and self-determination that in time may be turned toward leisure as well as self-support.

Resources for the two-worker households are more than income. Not only do the two form a couple for joint leisure activity, but two employment roles will in some cases provide a dual set of potential associates for leisure such as entertaining, going out after work, and developing other leisure-related patterns of companionship. Further, the dual sources of income provide a mutual independence that can foster investment of time as well as money in leisure that is very much the special expression of either adult. The considerable investment of the household in work may result in commensurate concern for leisure as well as potential scheduling conflicts (Kelly and Masar, 1981).

The variety in women's roles will, no doubt, result in a variety of leisure orientations as well as programs and provisions. The critical dimension is *time*. Women will have less discretionary time. Just as important for recreation providers, the time that is available will increasingly be directly competitive with men. Programming for women on weekdays and for men on weekends will no longer be acceptable. Weekday programming for children can no longer assume that there is a parent available for transportation after school. The single employed parent, restricted in both time and money, will require special concern if (s)he is to be served by recreation providers at all.

On the other hand, the increase in the number of dual-income households with more of their life course not limited by parenting may well open a number of possibilities for leisure investment. Those adults may be willing to commit a greater proportion of their time and income to leisure that they find deeply satisfying. Also, they will have the resources to be selective.

A major concern for those who are in a life transition toward being single or who are adapting to adult singleness is gaining the opportunity and self-confidence to find new friends and companions. Leisure, especially for those who work in settings allowing for little interaction with the other sex, can be *the* major environment for reinstituting heterosexual interaction. Planners and providers will need to design their programs and perhaps even their facilities to maximize the social potential of their activities. Single adults frequently sign up for tennis classes or continuing education at the local community college for social as well as skill-acquisition reasons.

Conclusion

In summary, there will be new opportunities as well as new vulnerabilities in this emerging diversity of household structures and women's roles. Programs for children cannot be organized with the assumption of an available parent to provide various kinds of support. The regular life course in which singleness is tacitly identified with age groups—those under 25 and women over 70—all characterize fewer individuals. Rather, periods of being single will become more common for all ages and the parenting role will encompass less of the full life course. The key concepts are *diversity and transitions*, variety and change. And there is one more—that of being *adult*. The variety of life circumstances for adults should not be allowed to obscure that more and more leisure will need to be responsive to *adults*—not in their roles as parents or caretakers for children or as spouses, but as individuals making their way through a changing set of roles and identities for which they are often not well-prepared.

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Single Adults

Richard Kraus

A unique demographic phenomenon of the second half of the 20th century in America has been the emergence of a sizable new population group: single adults—men and women over the age of 21 who have never married, or who are widowed or divorced. To this societal subgroup have been attributed recreational needs and interests that diverge sharply from those of married adults; this is of special concern, both for recreation professionals and leisure scholars and researchers.

The Singles Explosion

Until relatively recently, marriage and subsequent parenthood were considered the only appropriate adult roles for most American men and women. The man who did not marry and raise a family was often viewed as less than masculine, probably to become an unhappy and crochety old bachelor. Similarly, the woman who did not marry was traditionally thought of as a shy or slightly strange "old maid," unfulfilled in life and an embarrassment to her family. Divorce was comparatively rare, a tragedy to be avoided, even at the cost of continuing a demeaning or conflict-ridden marriage to the bitter end. As a Newsweek article on the growth of singles in the early 1970s commented:

> Until recently, the term "single" usually connoted a lonely heart, a temporary loser whose solitary status was simply a way station on the passage to matrimony.[1]

All this changed abruptly after World War II. Thanks to a variety of circumstances, many of which center around the feminist movement and the acceptance of higher social and economic expectations for women, a much higher percentage of women work than in the past and are not as dependent on marriage for support. Societally defined male and female roles, with men as breadwinners and women as homemakers, have been radically revised. Separation, divorce and single-parent families have risen sharply in number, and the typical age of first marriage has grown steadily higher. Marriage itself and child-raising are no longer as widely accepted as invariable life roles for both sexes as in the past. Along with the lessened emphasis on traditional marriage and the nuclear family, such diverse life-styles as homosexuality or bisexuality have gained a measure of popular acceptance and understanding that was not formerly the case, as well as new forms of legal protection.

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There are over 56 million single men and women over the age of 21 in America today, a sharp increase from 48 million in the early 1970s. For many, this represents a temporary state, since the majority of divorced persons tend to remarry within a few years. This also means, however, that over a period of years a substantially greater number of adults than 56 million are single, for a significant period of time.

The Changing Image of Singles

For the first time in human history, it has become widely accepted that it is possible to be both single and whole, and that the single adult condition represents an acceptable life-style option. To illustrate, the University of Michigan Survey Research Center carried out a large-scale study of the attitudes of American adults toward the single life in the late 1970s, comparing the findings to a similar study in 1957. In the earlier period, four out of five Americans thought that someone who didn't want to get married or have children was either immoral, neurotic, or simply selfish. Today, less than 25% of those tested share this view.

Commercial entrepreneurs came to realize, as this demographic shift took form, that single adults represented a huge new potential market for specially designed leisure services and products. It was estimated that America's unmarried adult population wielded an annual discretionary spending power of some $40 billion, and this in turn led to an explosive "growth industry" aimed at satisfying the unwed's every whim.

This rise of the single culture in the late 60s and 70s did not always draw a positive response. One critic suggested that singles had been deliberately caricatured and distorted as people, and that the single life as publicly advertised depicts the unmarried adult as a ridiculously childish narcissist or wastrel:

> He dances the hustle in the apartment-house party room; loafs on his plastic sea horse in the pool; lives for lotions, balms and sprays; is a non-stop lover, drinker, laugher, and more (or less). For him, local entrepreneurs arrange picnics, luaus, bus trips, bingo—all forms of distraction, as one would for a child. That, in short, is the life depicted—a child on a spree with an indefinite spending allowance: a baby adult. . . .[2]

The reality of course is that singles are people just like other people. They work, play, read, travel, and care for their homes as other adults do, and have exactly the same kinds of psychosocial needs as their married peers. What is different is that (excluding those unmarried couples that live together in more or less long-term relationships) many of them tend not to have intimate, interdependent, caring

and continuous one-to-one involvements with other adults, an important component of sound mental health.

Ups and Downs of Single Life

Obviously, many unmarried adults are extremely contented with their lives. They are happy, well-adjusted and busy, oriented to people and activity, visible and receptive to potential friendships or romantic relationships, although not in desperate search of them. Such individuals do not think of themselves as a special class, and rarely need to rely on "singles-identified" activities.

On the other hand, Barkas points out that there are many unattached, long-term unmarried adults for whom the lack of intimacy and interpersonal one-to-one involvement becomes a more or less permanent way of life. Such individuals often suffer both physical and psychological consequences. Compared with married persons, statistics show that single adults smoke more, drink more, visit physicians more often, have more car accidents, and suffer a greater incidence of cancer of the digestive system. Lacking exclusive, continued partners, many singles opt either for instant sexual intimacy without real emotional commitment, or for celibacy. In both cases, they are often extremely lonely.[3]

Studies have shown that in general married individuals report more positive feelings about their lives than unmarried persons. While unmarried women are both physically and psychologically healthier than married women as a class, they are not necessarily happier. Particularly for divorced women with children, there is an immense amount of strain and pressure (often economic), and such persons tend to report the greatest dissatisfaction with their lives.[4] Unmarried men are distinctly less happy than their married counterparts.

For otherwise successful young business or professional women living in larger cities, it is often extremely difficult to find sincere, eligible, and attractive men within an appropriate age range (assuming that they have a heterosexual orientation). Such women often view singles bars and dances as unpleasant "meat markets" or "body shops," and see the men who come to them as sexually voracious, uncaring, and exploitive. On the other hand, many single men in the same settings view unmarried women as cold and rude, aggressive, castrating, and with unrealistic images about the kind of men they would like to meet and the kind of relationships that are possible.

Recreational Needs

Based on such reports, there is little doubt that great numbers of unmarried men and women are discontented with their single status—and that they are constantly seeking recreational or social outlets which will help them meet potential appropriate partners. While many such individuals would probably prefer not to be categorized as a special population or herded into singles-segregated leisure or social "compounds," there is often a realistic basis for such arrangements.

While unmarried adults can readily join with their married friends in a host of special-interest groups or similar activities—including sports and games, hobbies, cultural activities, political, religious or service programs—there is often difficulty when the emphasis is primarily social. Typically, many individuals who are divorced find that they no longer are invited to social gatherings of their married friends, or that only one partner of the divorced couple is

Photo: John Langton Brooks

welcome. Often, married women hesitate to remain close to divorced friends if they fear that these newly single, attractive women might tempt their husbands. In many other ways, the life-styles, interests, needs and schedules of single adults differ from those of married couples, with the result that they often find it more comfortable to be part of singles groups where all share common concerns and all are available for possible relationships.

Leisure Programming

What are the special kinds of programs or leisure services designed to attract and serve unmarried adults? Obviously, they include the facilities and activities that serve married adults as well. Often, however, they may be specially packaged or advertised *for* singles, in order to attract this population and to assure them that they will find the situation compatible. For example, commercial, profit-oriented sponsors provide singles with the usual spectrum of entertainment, plus cruises, weekends, evenings, gambling junkets, ski trips, and other events particularly identified as singles-oriented.

In general, such profit-based programs are more concerned with money than with helping adult singles meet their critical psychosocial needs. Often they involve a passive, spectator form of experience; they tend to emphasize such activities as drinking, gambling, or a commercialized approach to sex, rather than healthy and constructive forms of social interchange.

Many churches have moved vigorously into programming for single adults. Typically, the Unitarian Universalist Church has either sponsored or provided meeting places for many singles clubs that offer social activity, discussion groups and similar events for unmarried adults. Many large industrial concerns offer social programs that serve their unmarried employees. Voluntary organizations like the YMCA, YWCA or YM-YWHA often sponsor institutes,

workshops or special classes that help single individuals come to grips with their life needs, to deal with crises, to build awareness and assertiveness, and in general to enrich the quality of their lives. Often organizations like Parents Without Partners appeal to a particular segment of the singles population, and combine recreation with other supportive services. Private sponsors or informal groups are likely to organize special tennis groups, dinner-party clubs, theater parties, folk dance events, and similar leisure programs for unmarried adults.

Few public recreation and park departments have made efforts to serve adult singles as a special population. Indeed, the question might well be asked—why *should* community recreation departments single out this group for special programming efforts? Why not simply serve them as part of the overall adult population?

The reality is that singles *are* a special group, with social needs that are different and more intense than those of other adults. Many are highly motivated recreationally, relatively mobile and affluent, and because they have no pressing family obligations, have considerable blocks of free time.

Since public departments are finding it necessary today to market their programs and services more vigorously than in the past and to gain substantial revenues from them, they should recognize the unique potential of single adults as a population group to be involved in a wide range of programs on a paying basis. These would include sports, games and activities particularly appropriate for singles, and likely to appeal to them. Many adult singles who resist the "bar scene" and commercially-sponsored single activities will welcome such programs. Those park departments which have initiated leisure counseling programs to assist the general population (rather than disabled individuals, formerly the primary focus of such efforts) will probably find that single adults are particularly interested in counseling.

The Future Singles Scene

There is evidence that the present trend toward fewer and later marriages and increased divorces is slowing down. The rate of increase in the annual number of divorces declined sharply from about 8% a year to 3% a year in the late 70s. Recent surveys show that the overwhelming majority of Americans believe that marriage is a far preferable way of life to either living with a partner outside of marriage, or singlehood—although children are not generally seen as necessary for a full life.

In many other ways, the depiction of singlehood as a glamorous, "fun" way of life that began in the 1960s and 1970s has been tempered by realism. Today it is recognized by behavioral investigators and popular writers alike that for many adult singles, life can be depressing, frustrating and lonely. These people are responding less and less to the combination of flattery and financial exploitation practiced upon them. The recreation planner's responsibility in the 80s will be to serve this special population through sound and imaginative leisure services to help make their lives as full and rewarding as possible.

Footnotes

[1]Games singles play. *Newsweek*, July 16, 1973, p. 52.
[2]Roger Rosenblatt, The self as sybarite. Harpers, March, 1977, p. 14.
[3]J. L. Barkas, *Single in America*. New York: Atheneum-Scribner's, 1980.
[4]Angus Campbell, The American way of mating: marriage si, children only maybe. *Psychology Today*, May 1975, pp. 38-39.

Elderly Sunbelt Migrants

George C. Fenstermacher

The purpose of this article is to point out interesting aspects of the migration of the elderly, and how one might best prepare leisure programs and recreational opportunities based on the anticipated influx of this population to the southern and western regions of the United States.

Although it is nearly impossible to establish a single term to label over-65 individuals, this article will respectfully refer to that population as the "elderly." The age of 65, an arbitrary measure of one described as elderly, has been adopted by the author to reflect the data contained in the US Census reports.

As the American worker approaches the age of 65 our society signals him to prepare for retirement and disengagement from the mainstream of a product-oriented society. Statistical data indicate a movement of the retired population from the densely populated industrial regions of the northern and eastern states to the warmer climate and lower taxes in those of the south and west.

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Trends

Barsby (1975, p. 32) identified a general movement of elderly persons from states with larger populations toward states with fewer residents. This in itself is not remarkable, but the movement is the exact opposite of that of younger populations. It is most evident in the subgroup aged 65 to 69. Using the geographic regions established by the US Census, it can be seen that migration of the elderly is redistributing this population from the New England, Middle Atlantic, and East South Central areas toward the South Atlantic, Mountain, Pacific, and West South Central regions. (Census 1973A).

Figure 1: Net migration rate of persons aged 65 and over by geographic region—1960-1970

POSITIVE IN-MIGRATION		NEGATIVE IN-MIGRATION	
Region	Rate	Region	Rate
South Atlantic	+8.4	Middle Atlantic	−4.5
Mountain	+6.5	East North Central	−3.5
Pacific	+4.8	New England	−1.4
West South Central	+2.9		
East South Central	+0.7		
West North Central	+0.3		

Figure 2: States where elderly population grew at rate greater than US average during the period 1960 to 1970.

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Twenty-nine states experienced a net elderly population gain during the 1960s and 80% of the gains attributed to migration were accumulated in Florida, Arkansas, Texas, Arizona, Oregon, and California (Barsby 1975, p. 35). A graphic illustration (see figure 2) of migration preferences of the elderly shows that those states experiencing a growth rate higher than the US average are in the southern and coastal regions (Census 1973B). The US Center of Population has shifted from 23 miles east of Baltimore, Maryland in 1790 to its present position 7 miles west of St. Louis, Missouri (Census 1979). In 1940 the elderly population density of the Atlantic Coast region was 29.9 per 1000 square miles and that of the Pacific Coast was 7.5. By 1977 the Pacific Coast region had reached a density of 198.7, a 26.39 fold increase, while the Atlantic Coast was measured at 407.7, a 13.6 fold increase (Census 1979B).

Florida rates highest in the percentage of elderly residents: 14.6% of its population are over the age of 65. Iowa, Nebraska, Arkansas, Missouri, and South Dakota each have greater than 12% of their population in the 65+ age group. At the other extreme, Alaska claims 2.3% of the population is 65 or over, Hawaii 5.7% Nevada 6.3%, and New Mexico 6.9% (Barsby 1975, p. 6).

The states containing the greatest numbers of elderly are California with 2.2 million, New York with 1.7 million, Texas with 1.3 million, Pennsylvania with 1.1 million, and Illinois with 1.1 million. Between 1960 and 1978 the states experiencing the greatest percentage increase of the over 65 age group were Nevada +3.6%, Arizona +3.4%, Alaska +3.4%, and Florida +2.8%. The areas experiencing the greatest decrease in elderly residents were Washington, DC −1.4%, New York −.4%, and Rhode Island −.4% (Census 1979C).

"Country roads take me home, to the place I belong . . ." The words of a popular song reflect a popular attitude to "go home." The nostalgic attraction to familiar people and places affects the elderly as they determine their post retirement residence. Serow (1978) writing on the return migration of the elderly, reports that nearly 20% of all interstate migrants are returning to the state of their birth. This holds for both older and the younger populations, but the elderly are more likely to return to the state of their birth if it is a popular destination attracting large numbers of older migrants. Logino (1979) states that a cluster of "Sunbelt" states, plus Utah, strongly attract return migrants. The states attracting the highest return migration rates are Florida 16.3%, California 9.5%, Arizona 4.4%, Maryland 4.3%, and Utah 3.0%. The states least able to attract return migration of their elderly populations are Alaska 0.0%, North Dakota 1.1%, South Dakota 1.1%, Nebraska 1.1%, and Missouri 1.1%.

Photos: Leo G. Wilkins, National Park Service

Factors Influencing Migration

Literature in the fields of gerontology, migration demography, and recreation services for the elderly suggests the following composite factors which influence an elderly person's decision to migrate for post retirement settlement.

- Housing—ownership of real estate, availability of rental properties, property taxes, climate
- Transportation—public transportation, cost of fuel, density of population
- Income—personal wealth, property ownership, tax incentives, employment opportunities
- Health—age at retirement, physical and mental status, medical services available, public services.
- Social—marital status, family relationships, vocational status, educational level, recreation and entertainment.

Health and climate may be the most influential variables in the decision of a retiree to migrate. Poor health might reduce one's ability to migrate, or may on the other hand be the primary factor motivating the move to another state or area. The promise of a milder climate, for example, influences the "Snowbirds" who head south each winter as well as those who migrate permanently, to the warmer climates of the "Sunbelt."

Implications for Recreation and Leisure Services

The necessity for leisure services and recreation programming for the elderly is increasing in the south and west as the migration of 65+ population increases. As Alexander Leaf suggests, "surely we can all find enjoyable pursuits

to fill our leisure hours with purpose if we consciously encourage development of human service and avocations early in our lives. Habits of regular physical exercise can also be cultivated." (1975, p. 174) Leaf suggests also that creative and service activities be cultivated earlier to satisfy day-to-day requirements. Leaf continues "Any activity with family or community which gives a sense of purpose and usefulness will sustain the elderly." Where proximity permits frequent contacts with family, grandparents will benefit as well as the grandchildren. It is obvious to practitioners, participants, and politicians alike that the elderly are a special population demanding specific and directed programming to fill their unobligated hours with interesting and appropriate recreational activities.

Once one accepts the fact that elderly Americans are migrating in a southwestern direction in ever increasing numbers, it is necessary to anticipate the leisure needs of this population and prepare the retiree as well as the leisure service provider. Most retired people find themselves with more unobligated time than they can use. Unless they are prepared for the amount of unstructured time retirement brings, elderly citizens will often be unable to use their retirement as they had anticipated, and may actually withdraw to a minimum level of participation. The most successful transitions to retirement are related to educational and occupational background. A high level of education enables one to more easily structure leisure, and also provides the individual the potential for post-retirement employment. Professional and white collar workers are more likely to view retirement positively, as they will usually have had a greater degree of control over their life situations, and have greater potential for financial security following retirement.

The relationship between migration and income is clear: wealthy retirees can afford to move to a more comfortable environment, while persons with little wealth cannot. Thus states with relatively high proportions of high-income residents will have larger portions of elderly who will in-migrate or return migrate after retirement. It would seem that elderly persons would prefer to live in familiar social environments, but if one's associates, relatives, and friends have moved, great pressure may be placed on the retiree to relocate. In fact Geist (1968) found that 80% of those retirees studied chose to remain in the communities where they had been working. In view of the limits placed on the average retiree's ability to migrate, one would expect the newly migrated elderly person to be reasonably wealthy, in better than average physical and mental health, and independent in personality.

Guidelines for Recreators

Kraus (1978) specifically identifies recreation's contributions to the needs of elderly people.

- Improvement of physical health—relaxation, circulation, muscle strength, joint mobility
- Improvement of emotional well-being—social interaction, creative skills, diversion from daily boredom, mental health
- Re-awakening of creative impulses—arts, literature, music, drama
- Encouragement of social involvement—interactions, friendships, concern for others
- Providing meaningful roles—family, environment, politics, service
- Providing threshold to other services—health care, legal aid, assistance

Moran (1979) provides guidelines for the use of recreation as a therapeutic intervention with the elderly consumer through the modalities of: reality therapy; reality orientation and remotivation; sensory training; horticulture training; music therapy; movement and dance therapy; art therapy; and recreation therapy. O'Morrow (1980) suggests the recreator consider the following points in dealing with the elderly segment of special populations: (1) the elderly make up the fastest growing special population; (2) the quality of life should be the emphasis of programs; (3) the majority of elderly are women; (4) health problems are a major concern of the elderly; and (5) poverty is a social problem affecting many elderly.

Summary

The recreation profession has a responsibility to provide leisure services to a rapidly increasing number of elderly citizens, especially in the south and west, where this population segment is increasing most rapidly. Recreation curricula need to address directly the sociological, physiological, and psychological problems of aging, and to disseminate their findings among leisure service personnel. Regardless of the recreator's area of emphasis (therapeutic, commercial, private, industrial, outdoor, or urban) preparation should include a familiarity with services available for the aged. Agencies providing health and social services to the elderly should work in coordination. Recreation for the elderly is a social responsibility, as well as an opportunity to gain an ally in the battle against those who dismiss recreation as merely a societal alternative to juvenile delinquency.

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Section II

Mark W. Clark, Ph.D.
Coping with Stress through Leisure
(October 1982)

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What might produce stress for one person stimulates another. As leisure managers and practitioners, we need to recognize that stress is inevitable, even necessary for the fulfilled life. We cannot—nor should we try to—stop stress. What we can do is help accommodate stress within the rhythm of life for ourselves and for the populations we serve.

—Mark Clark
Editor

Stress Reduction Through Effective Use of Leisure

Vicki Cleaver

Henry Eisenhart

Probably everyone has experienced some of the unpleasant consequences of stress. Most authorities agree that negative body responses to stress can include migraine and tension headaches, allergies, ulcers and ulcerative colitis, diarrhea and constipation, and mental illness. In coronary heart disease, stroke, hypertension, cancer, diabetes, obesity, and accident proneness stress is thought to be a contributing factor.

In his book, *Stress Without Distress*, Hans Selye defines stress as the nonspecific response of the body to any demand made upon it. He suggests that stress must be viewed as a person's reaction to any disturbing influence. These influences could include physical deterioration, temperature extremes, noise, constant threat or fear, or even life changes such as marriage, divorce, vacations, or a new occupation.

Regardless of the cause, Seyle found that the physiological response to stress was the same. He called this response the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS). The three-phase GAS response includes the alarm reaction, the resistance stage, and the exhaustion stage. In the first phase, the body adapts to the stressor. In the second phase, the body begins to resist the continued presence of the stressor. In the final phase, the body's adaptation energy is depleted, and the consequence is a stress-related disease or even death.

When a person experiences stress, whether real or imagined, certain bodily changes include increases in heart rate, basal metabolic rate, and blood pressure. Increased levels of oxygen, glucose, and cholesterol in the blood occur to help the individual physiologically prepare for a "fight or flight" response.

The bodily changes presented result from the autonomic nervous and endocrine systems being activated by an individual's perception of a stressor. The stimulated hypothalamus in the brain triggers the nerve fibers of the sympathetic division of the autonomic nervous system. This system helps to control involuntary muscles and stimulates the glands of the endocrine system, especially the adrenals. Hormones such as adrenaline (epinephrine), noradrenaline (norepinephrine), and adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) are released into the circulatory system.

It is common knowledge that physical activity plays a significant role in stress reduction. For centuries, persons have "worked off" anger, frustration, and indignations by taking long walks, chopping wood, or even screaming in an attempt to vent pent-up anxieties. Physical exertion, which consumes the sugar and fats that have poured into the bloodstream, reduces the stress reaction through the process of "syntropy." Simply, the more a person exercises, the stronger the body becomes. All of the body's systems—the working muscles, heart, hormones, metabolic reactions and the responsiveness of the central nervous system—are strengthened through stimulation. Following periods of extended exertion the body systems slow, bringing on a feeling of deep relaxation. Attaining this relaxed state is essential to lessening the stress reaction.

People who exercise regularly tend to feel better about themselves and to develop positive attitudes about the necessity of physical activity. From the reports of thousands of joggers and runners we know that their daily mileage has

Photo: DoD Idea

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Activity Level Self-Assessment

How do you spend the hours in your day?

Activity	Hour(s)	Points per hour	Total points
Sleeping	_____	@.85 points/hr.	_____
Sitting		@1.5 points/hr.	
Riding/driving	_____		
Study/deskwork	_____		
Meals	_____		
Watching TV	_____		
Reading	_____		
Other	_____		
	_____		
	_____	(total standing × 1.5)	_____
Standing		@2 points/hr.	
Standing	_____		
Dressing	_____		
Showering	_____		
Other	_____		
	_____	(total standing × 2)	_____
Walking			
Slow walk	_____	@3 points/hr.	_____
Moderate speed	_____	@4 points/hr.	_____
Very fast walk	_____	@5 points/hr.	_____
Occupational Housework light physical work	_____	@3 points/hr.	_____
Heavy total body physical exertion			
Rapid calisthenics	_____	@4 points/hr.	_____
Slow run (jog).	_____	@6 points/hr.	_____
Fast run	_____	@7 points/hr.	_____
Recreational racket sports	_____	@8 points/hr.	_____
Competitive sports	_____	@9-10 points/hr.	_____
Stair climbing	_____	@8 points/hr.	_____
TOTAL HOURS	24	TOTAL POINTS:	_____

Do you have an exercise outlet for stress buildup?	Yes_____	No_____
Do you use it?	Yes_____	No_____
Do you exercise regularly for its preventive rewards?	Yes_____	No_____
Have you discovered the transcendental nature of exercise?	Yes_____	No_____

become one of the most important activities in their lives. Many other physical and recreational activities, done regularly, provide a comparable reduction in stress products.

Many physical activities require good energy output and promote the development of muscles, including the heart. These are walking, running/jogging, swimming, aerobic conditioning/dance, racquet sports, bicycling, skiing (cross-country and alpine), weightlifting, golf (without a motorized cart), and team sports such as basketball or soccer.

Although many physical activities can help reduce stress, aspects of recreational activity can increase it. As a culture, Americans thrive on competition and often carry this competitive spirit into recreational pursuits. Some tend to view the recreational arena in much the same way as they view success in the business or corporate world: they place a high priority on winning. Unfortunately, this transfer of values can dilute the therapeutic or restorative effects of physical activity as well as the intended self-enhancing experience of leisure/recreation choice.

A highly competitive game of racquetball, tennis, or golf is great exercise, yet seeking the ego-enhancement of "beating" someone else can be as frustrating, angering—and consequently, as stressful—as the situations from which one seeks relief. Likewise, solo activities such as running, bicycling, swimming, or skiing also can raise anxiety levels if one is prone to measure performance against one's past performance or that of others.

High risk activities have become extremely popular. Hang-gliding, moto-cross motorcycle racing, mountain climbing, and skydiving exemplify today's death-defying thrill sports. They epitomize the challenge between persons, the environment, or the laws of science. Because they require both physical endurance and acquired skill, and yet are colored by the threat of severe injury or death, these activities also can produce moments of high anxiety.

It is not realistic to assume that physical activity is everyone's answer to coping with stress. The office bound employee, the elderly or handicapped individual may not be able to lift weights or run two miles to alleviate stress. Even the most athletic individuals cannot always find the proper time or environment for strenuous exercise.

Passive activities, however, also can lower blood pressure, relax the nervous system, and help reduce stress. Hobbies and craft activities have always been encouraged as means of melding one satisfaction of accomplishment with a relaxing leisure pursuit. They provoke a regenerative stress reducing response often found in leisure experiences by enabling participants to "lose" themselves in the activity and thereby ease outside stress factors. Other approaches to dealing with stress, those of mind-directed states such as biofeedback, autogenic training, and meditation also aim to promote relaxation.

Maintaining good health requires that everyone learn to deal with stress and its physical responses. People should pursue whatever recreational and leisure interest—whether physical or mental—which enjoyably restore them for work and importantly provide a state of relaxation.

The Activity Level Self-Assessment lists activities which are normal parts of our daily routine. List the time you spend doing each activity or its approximation. The total time should equal 24 hours. Multiply the weighted score given for each hour or partial hour, then total the points.

A score of 40 points indicates you are quite sedentary and should probably seek a higher level of physical activity. A score of about 55 indicates that you are physically active and are probably enjoying the benefits of your activities.

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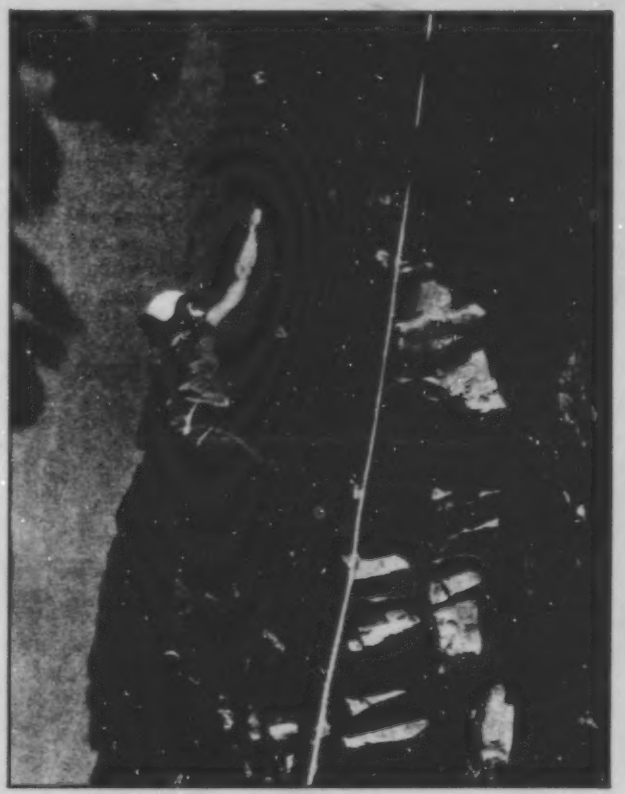
The Benefits of Leisure Stress

Richard G. Mitchell, Jr.

Leisure is commonly thought of as the antithesis of stress, as a respite from the burdens of demanding work, home life, and other responsibilities. But this stress-free notion of leisure is problematic: (1) it is too general; and (2) it is based on assumptions about social life that only partially apply to modern industrialized countries.

What is stress? According to Webster, stress is a social-psychological condition of perceived urgency, importance, or significance associated with some set of persons or events. A stressful situation is one that matters, that is real, meaningful, and commanding. Stress is simply and essentially stimulation. Weddings and funerals, awards and demerits, promotions and firings are all stressful yet they call forth different responses. Hans Selye[1] has identified two types of stress: *distress* connotes suffering, misery, sorrow, impending failure, and the like. Conversely, *eustress* occasions rejoicing, happiness, and a sense of fulfillment. It is the latter concept, eustress, that is most frequently associated with successful leisure pursuits. To be without stress is to be eddied in the stream of life, cut off from stimuli, noxious or otherwise. Less is required of the person and less is possible. The opposite of stress is not celebration, satisfaction or tranquility; it is a state of diminished awareness and capacity. Only by the most perverted of Orwellian doublethink can complete stresslessness be judged a desirable leisure goal. These are not mere definitional quibbles. Stress is an essential ingredient of leisure.



Additional Stress Equals "Too Much"?

There remains a popular, if unsubstantiated, belief that additional stress of any sort, positive or negative, is too much. This belief holds that for most persons who are already faced with nearly unbearable demands in contemporary social life, stressful leisure would be neither desirable nor tolerable. Picture the ulcer-ridden, heart attack prone executive fighting his way up the corporate ladder. Surely neither the executive nor other categories of persons we might imagine—men at war, persons suffering pain and extreme deprivation, individuals with overwhelming work loads, those who face constantly shifting social requirements—have capacity for further stress. Perhaps for these persons that utterly unstimulated condition which Freud once sketched as the epitome of neural bliss is an ideal leisure objective.[2] Yet these extreme examples and special instances are encountered mainly by soap opera, cop show and spy thriller heros. In fact, the industrial social order challenges human adaptive abilities, not by increasing demands but by providing fewer opportunities for personal expression, creativity and self-guidance.

Gone are the days of rugged individuals on the wild frontier. More than half of America's employees work in monolithic corporations and government bureaucracies. Their economy of scale, massive capitalization, and scientific management produce the relatively cheap and plentiful goods and services that make possible the highest material standard of living in the world. They also protect and insulate their members. They provide retirement programs, health plans, civil service benefits and tenure, which result in job security, economic stability, and social certainty—but at a price.

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Numerous psychological experiments have demonstrated that humans and animals alike seek out and are rewarded by moderate complexity, uncertainty, and novelty in their environments.[3] Maximum motivation and gratification are achieved when we strike a balance between abilities and responsibilities, when the skills we possess are roughly commensurate with the challenges we face, when our talents are neither underused or overtaxed. For many persons working for large scale organizations, however, these relationships are out of balance.

Streamlining Production—Steamrolling Employees

In the name of rational efficiency, work activity is stripped of complexity and novelty, streamlined, standardized, and routinized. Following the maxims of Frederick Taylor, the occupation is simplified to a set of logically related tasks, and the individual, reduced to an assortment of roles and statuses. This process is not limited to clerical or assembly-line jobs; it is beginning to influence all categories of work. The engineer, trained in theoretical principles, looks forward to building great bridges or skyscrapers and winds up designing door latches for ice boxes. The chemist anticipates making significant breakthroughs in the development of alternatives to fossil fuels and finds himself monitoring gauges at a Standard Oil refinery.[4] Far from increasing stress, these organizations isolate people from sensation and varied experience, minimize their decision-making, limit options, cloister, and confine. While many persons feel that their range of action and creative potential are being curtailed, some are willing to exchange these intrinsic rewards for material plenty and economic security. People who climb mountains are not.

The executives, scientists, and businessmen who comprise the majority of contemporary mountain climbers are highly imaginative and creative persons. Though diverse in background they share a common perception of their life opportunities. Mountaineers studied in the United States, Canada and Europe see themselves as capable, even exceptional persons whose talents are, in part, repressed by bureaucratic and organizational regimen.[4]

When creative people find their best abilities stifled by overly restrictive social structures, they may express their energy in other ways. Some may purposefully search out stressful situations in leisure activities. They seek to test their limits in a gratifying no-compromise situation where their actions are meaningful and outcomes depend upon their own self-directed action. For them stress is an essential ingredient in leisure experience. People who engage in risk avocations challenge the entire spectrum of their perceived capacities. Complete expression of personal creativity and freedom is only possible when the activity tests the individual to the fullest. For these people leisure without stress is unsatisfying and incomplete.

Leisure bereft of all stress is action without purpose. Partial commitment offers only partial fulfillment. If others plan the action, make decisions, and take the risks, then both the consequences and the rewards are theirs. Some may be drawn in their leisure to the bright but shallow allure of synthetic play, of endless electric distraction and stressless ersatz experience. For others, stress remains the essential leisure ingredient that provides meaning and clarity to social experience.

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[4]Mitchell, Richard G. Jr., *The mountain experience*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1983 (forthcoming). These are not contrived examples but actual instances from the mountaineering research project. Both individuals feel acutely frustrated by their circumstances. Both are avid climbers.

The Stress Mess
From Management to Engagement

Edrie Ferdun

Jan Felshin

Identifying the construct of stress enables us to bridge the mind/body duality often separated in our thinking. The usefulness of the construct depends upon recognition of the wholeness of this process. However, the construct is often applied simplistically and only a disintegrative model emerges. Stress is thus perceived as an alien force that gains entry into the body. In this application, "management," as an antidote to stress, adopts a scientific strategy that uses technological controls and minimizes affective behaviors. This approach to dealing with the stress people experience is both dehumanizing and disintegrative. When we seek to "manage" through control, we essentially shift from being meaning-seeking changemakers to technological interventionists. The doing self becomes defined through mundane routinization and obligation, rather than through personal meanings and feelings of worth. Further, the "meaning" parts of our lives are ignored or vaguely assumed as outgrowths of accomplishment.

Management is an attractive and fashionable construct today, but it is basically antithetical to the essential meaning of play, recreation, and health. The notion of "engagement" refers to a more integrative approach for dealing with stress and other forms of human behavior. We are not spectators of the self, we are ourselves. In the 1980s, our increasing sophistication suggests that the split in us, this separation of mind and body, the distinction of right and left hemispheres of the brain, and other dichotomies that prevent us from acting in an integrated way are what need to be dealt with. We must accept the imperatives of self-consciousness and "engage" (rather than "manage") all of our faculties and abilities toward growth and creative living. Only in this manner can stress be viewed, and used, in its wholistic sense to enhance our lives.

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Leisure as Interlude

Douglas A. Kleiber

Joan Fiscella

There is a tradition in the study of leisure that defines leisure as experience—specifically, the experience of choice which provides a sense of freedom and enjoyment[1,2,3]. Refinements of that idea of leisure distinguish it from "free time," which more commonly connotes time left over after work.

Let us consider, here, the possibility that time is of direct relevance to leisure and that leisure may represent a retreat from action. The word which may be most useful for characterizing this view of leisure is *interlude*. Interlude is commonly defined as an intervening time period or episode.

Leisure, as interlude, creates a sense of psychological space and is experienced as "freedom" (but more as freedom from, than freedom to). Interlude is disengagement rather than engagement. Interlude is pleasant. Additionally, interlude is as likely to be arousal-reducing as arousal-seeking.[4] It may be a kind of play or simply rest. In any case, interlude is a break in the action within which a degree of refreshment is sought. Midday meditations seem to work magic for some people. Although disengaging, these breaks offer the potential for perspective, revelation, and transcendence. Interlude can also be the coffee break, the lunch break, the break for a cigarette; in an expanded form, it may be the day off, the vacation, or even a sabbatical leave.

To those involved in the enterprise of leisure education, it would seem important to gain and provide some understanding of the concept of interlude. Living with breaks, with guarded and private moments, and doing so without guilt, would appear to be a significant affective achievement. If our goal is to make life more enjoyable and action more effective as a result, perhaps more should be learned about the concept of interlude and its relationship to other types of behavior.

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A Cognitive Behavioral Technique for Reducing Stress

Aubrey Fine

Anxiety and stress are experienced by many individuals in a variety of situations. They influence performance in almost all daily activities, including recreational pursuits. Not only is anxiety provoked by various leisure activities, those activities are often affected by stresses unrelated to the recreation at hand. Since stress can negatively influence performance, it is imperative that professional recreators find and employ methods to reduce it.

Camp and Bash[1] have developed the "Think Aloud Program" to aid children with impulsive behavior. Although stress "innoculation" is not a direct goal of the program, the approach is designed to train individuals to think overtly and, thereby, solve problems.

Recreationalists can employ the "Think Aloud" approach themselves, or with clients. It helps the client (or the recreator) to problem-solve as an alternative to negative or destructive behaviors. It promotes logic and emphasizes thinking as a way to circumvent a problem.

The technique includes four stages.

Stage 1 —"What is my problem?" The client overtly defines the scope of his concern.

Stage 2 —"What am I supposed to do? How can I do it? What is my plan? The client selects an approach to his problem.

Stage 3 —"Am I using my plan?" The client periodically assesses his actions to make sure he is following the selected approach.

Stage 4 —"How did I do?" The client evaluates the effectiveness of the approach. This stage facilitates the total thought process and promotes self-correcting feedback.

This practical approach to stress management is appropriate for a wide range of leisure clients. It can reduce stressful symptoms and influence the quality of leisure pursuits of those we serve.

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Stress and Athletic Performance

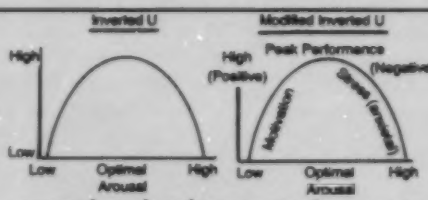
Richard M. Schavone

Mark W. Clark

Anxiety and *stress* are crucial factors in most learning and performance situations. Coaches must constantly address this concern in practice and game situations. For every athlete who must be "psyched-up" to produce optimum performance, another athlete must be "relaxed" to produce optimum performance.

The Inverted U Model illustrates that performance and arousal increase together to a point of optimal performance. After the optimum is reached, performance decreases, even if arousal continues to increase.

We have modified the Inverted U Model as follows. The left side, "motivation" (i.e. pep talks) increases



arousal and enhances performance (positive result). The right side, "stress," is a condition in which further arousal has a negative effect (i.e. "choking") and does not enhance performance.

If one interprets arousal/performance in this manner, an approach to arousal management seems critical to understanding sport performance. Both cognitive approaches (attribution, cognitive dissonance, and other forms of "social learning" theories) and behavioral approaches (classical and operant conditioning theories) can be used to increase ("motivation") or reduce ("stress") arousal. We will focus on behavioral techniques. Game balls, trophies, praise, and criticism are common and effective techniques used by coaches to motivate athletes to attain an optimal level of arousal for peak performance. Flooding and desensitization are two techniques often used to reduce stress to an optimal level for peak performance. "Practice makes perfect" or drilling an activity until it is "routinized" and little anxiety is evident is a common type of flooding. Desensitization uses various forms of progressive relaxation, imagery, and biofeedback to substitute a high anxiety/stress state with a more relaxed state.

Arousal management is critical to athletic performance. Arousal states related to peak performance are different for each athlete. Thus, coaches must individualize their evaluations and responses to arousal to maximize athletic performance.

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Designing a Stress Management Curriculum

Michael E. Crawford

Studies of illness behavior reveal complex expressions of psychosocial distress.[1,2] However, there is much disagreement over the proper classification of psychiatric and psychosocial conditions and the appropriate boundaries between disorder and ordinary problems of everyday life.[3,4,5]. Thus, the appropriate management of such problems within the context of general rehabilitative, psychiatric, and medical care presents a formidable clinical challenge.

In order for therapeutic recreation specialists to develop programs aimed at reversing maladaptive coping, they must (1) identify the problems posed by each illness or condition, (2) recognize the adaptation process specific to each, (3) enumerate available response options, and (4) determine the relative efficacy of coping strategies. Unfortunately, many therapeutic recreation specialists possess little knowledge of how to accomplish these tasks. Yet, this trend could be reversed if those responsible for therapeutic recreation curricula would afford psychosocial illness and stress management the status it deserves.

Rationale for Curriculum Development

The application of stress management techniques to highly specialized populations and disorders has become an increasingly important clinical endeavor in recent years.[6] The educational goals we have set for therapeutic recreation specialists require them to be able to lead their clientele toward intelligent, self-directed healthy behavior culminating in a lifestyle vastly superior to that of the uninformed or the nonmotivated. To enhance each client's effort to experience this lifestyle is our mission as therapeutic recreation professionls.

Because the task of modifying nonhelpful lifelong behaviors is difficult, it is essential that the intervention package used by recreation specialists be both educative and therapeutic. The educative component is appropriate, since the therapeutic recreation profession is committed to leisure education. The format must also be economical in terms of duration, implementation, number of clients, and required training. Also highly desirable is an intervention that provides coping skills which generalize to situations beyond those specifically addressed in training.

Curiously, we have devoted little formal effort to preparing students for this future training role. The bulk of related research shows that we have taught students how to cope with their own stress but not how to teach others[7,8,9] In a national survey of behavioral science programs, McCormick[10] found only two curricula offering formal undergraduate training in stress reduction methodology. Among therapeutic recreation curricula there is a dearth of information, Randall has tabulated over 80,000 publications in stress and found an average growth of 6,000 publications per year.[11] Therapeutic recreation educators must begin to translate the findings into meaningful units of study.

Curriculum Design and Content

In designing a learning model to facilitate skill processes, one must consider several factors. The student must possess knowledge relevant to the task and be trained in skills necessary for it. He/she must practice the skills to develop mastery, and be able to apply the knowledge and skills in appropriate situations. Within these overall considerations a number of subtopics regarding curriculum content must be researched and developed. These areas include (1) historical perspective of stress management techniques (2) description of stress-related illness (3) analysis of psychophysiological involvement (4) comparison and contrast of treatment styles, and (5) interdisciplinary cooperation regarding interventions.

Students should realize that stress and anxiety represent multifaceted constructs.[14,15] To gain an historical perspec-

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tive, they should become familiar with the many analytical techniques that have explained anxiety and stress.[9] They should read the works of early researchers of stress management, such as Freud 1918 study of phobia and anxiety control,[16] Mesmer's on hypnosis,[17] and Jacobson on progressive relaxation.[18] They should also be aware of modern theories, such as intrapsychic conflict resolution and psycho-therapy[19,20], the reconditioning and systematic desensitization techniques of the behavioral school[14] and cognitive restructuring of maladaptive thought forms and perceptions as pursued by the cognitive theorists.[21,22]

Description of stress-related illness includes an examination of how events and substances in our environment affect personal stress levels. The landmark studies here include Friedman[23] and Friedman and Roseman[24] on type A and B personality theory, as well as Homes and Rahe on the social readjustment scale.[25] More recently, a series of correlation studies—Cunningham[26], Stuart[27] (1979), Stickle[28] and Kamboltz[29]—has provided evidence of stress-induced physical complications as in coronary heart disease, high blood pressure, alcoholism, and migraine headaches.

Studying stress and practicing relaxation should involve students with the socioeconomic and cultural range of stress in society. They should study the psychophysiological involvement of stress in humans, in order to grasp the connections between the different categories of stressors and resulting forms of potential illnesses. Representative studies include Kiev and Kohn[30] on executive stress, Cunningham and Rechnitzer[31] on blue collar stress, Newman[32] on teacher burnout, Carlton[33] on college administrators, Brown[34] on high-risk lifestyles for police and firefighters, Munro[35] on front-line collapse in hospitals, Lorentzen[36] on competitive anxiety in college athletes, and John on elementary school children.[37] It is important to recognize that stress and its products are not bound by or specific to any particular culture, lifestyle, or economic class.

A presentation and discussion of treatment styles and ways of dealing with stress should focus on the two methodologies that therapeutic recreation specialists must employ: (1) short term alleviation of physical stress (as a strategy to combat secondary disability as a result of institutionalization), and (2) long term stress reduction through leisure education and counseling as forms of rehearsal for the community re-engagement process. Treatment styles suitable for therapeutic recreation specialists include Conway's delineation of counseling roles,[38] Mahoney and Thoresen's focus on life planning,[39] Meichenbaum's theory on mental rehearsal,[22] and Gemeroth's method of value clarfication and progressive relaxation.[40]

In addition, the comparison and contrast of methodologies is essential in selecting the most appropriate and economical interventions for the problem at hand. Recently, a number of investigations have sought to compare various stress management activities against each other or in a combination of strategies against a single strategy. Techniques compared include deep muscle progressive relaxation training, biofeedback, guided imagery, autogenics, deep breathing, cognitive restructuring, meditation, systematic desensitization, hypnosis, and specific skill training. Representative studies include Beiman on psychiatric patients,[41] Bennett on test anxiety,[42] Kirsch on performance anxiety,[43] Hurley on trait anxiety,[44] Friedman on junior high students,[23] and Omizo on hyperactive children.[45] The combined results of this literature offer some preliminary conclusions regarding the efficacy of various intervention formats. In all comparisons of a single strategy to another (e.g. relaxation training vs meditation) there were no significant differences among treatments, except for hypnosis which was superior in every case. All investigators reported success regardless of the strategy used; none were found ineffective. Wherever multiple strategies were compared against a single strategy (e.g. biofeedback and imagery vs. relaxation training, etc.), the combined treatment was always superior.

Along with being able to distinguish between various interventions and styles, students would receive information regarding interdisciplinary involvements and conflicts with stress management techniques. Squabbles over professional turfdom are not uncommon among occupational therapists, psychologists, registered nurses, psychiatrists, and therapeutic recreation specialists. Comparable facilities may have completely different policies over "who can do what with whom." The stress management field is a young one presenting many operational complications because it is "nested" in no particular profession. Students should be prepared to deal with this philosophically, and support the therapeutic recreation profession's role in stress on the interdisciplinary team.

Given the overall learning processes and content considerations, the following learning objectives are central to a systematic development of a stress curricula in therapeutic recreation.

Learning and Performance Objectives

Upon completion of the stress training materials the learner will be able to:

- differentiate between the three major orientations of stress research: medical, psychoanalytic, and psychological-learning theory;
- differentiate between the three sources of stressors: situational, habitual, and temperamental;
- identify the functional relationships between type A and B behaviors;
- explain the rationale behind the need to study stress as a psychosocial phenomenon of modern day living;
- differentiate between the various methodologies and treatment styles proposed to combat stress (e.g. deep muscle relaxation, autogenics, guided imagery, biofeedback, hypnosis);
- enumerate examples of failure to manage stress and the consequences for emotional and physical health;
- discuss relevant components in developing a personal strategy for coping with stress;
- deliver and interpret various stress assessment instruments and/or checklists (e.g., Social Readjustment Scale, Burnout Rating Scale, Time Management Scale);
- conduct a deep muscle progressive relaxation session;
- conduct a stress management leisure education group session;
- serve successfully as a primary therapist in a one-to-one leisure counseling relationship.

(*Note.* The last four competencies would best be met in fieldwork or guided practicum experiences under clinical supervision.)

An incorporation of the learning objectives, content considerations, and learning processes presented above could take place in a number of ways. Some programs might wish to develop an entire new course. Others may wish to revise content of existing coursework and add or modify specific performance expectations for fieldwork or practicum students. Either option could be appropriate.

Research Based Curriculum

It is appropriate for therapeutic recreation specialists to be concerned with and make an active contribution to the stress management movement. However, most therapeutic recreation curricula fail to provide adequate training and support. A proposal for undergraduate curriculum development in stress management drawn from current research findings yields a variety of applicable objectives and competencies. Both short-and long-term intervention strategies, based on educational and therapeutic principles, are called for.

Individual educators must develop, for their students, the scope and limitations of stress management theory and technique. Guidelines for curriculum revision and/or enhancement have been presented here in the hope that such stimulation will move others to act.

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Tasteful Living in the Spice Age

John M. Charles

Around every corner in our complex society lurks another potential stressor. The frustrations of earning a living, the anxiety of maintaining meaningful relationships, the endless demands of our daily existence deposit layer upon layer of stress. Stress has become a byword for psychosomatic malfunction ranging from boredom to breakdown, from heartburn to heart attacks. If, as Hans Selye suggests, stress is the spice of life[1], the Spice Age is upon us.

It seems unlikely that the "Dean" of stress research was implying that spices produce only nausea and sickness. On the contrary, the judicious application of appropriate spices may render the staple diet of life more palatable. Stress is a variable that can be manipulated through the medium of leisure time activity to enhance life's flavor. Just as light exercise may be prescribed to reduce the muscular soreness of overexertion, so self-induced stress may serve a soothing, relaxing function for our battered psyches.

The two faces of stress are reflected in an aquatic scene. The apparent agony of competition may actually mask the ecstacy of physiological and psychological relief. The appearance of distress may belie the pleasureable experience of self-induced stress. The balance between the peculiarities of the personal palate and the optimal blending of the spice of stress is a critical element of fulfillment through leisure activity.

Spice Science

The dawning of the Spice Age heralds a growing awareness of the significance of stress as a component of tasteful living. As stress permeates the culture, institutions of higher learning should reflect the changing needs of society in the nature and scope of their professional training programs. Recreation and physical education should reconcile their volatile relationship and rescue stress management from the remote realms of clinical psychology to give birth to a new discipline: Spice Science. Although interdisciplinary cooperation poses some administrative problems, the Spice Age, like the Ice Age, will replace its dinosaurs with more appropriate organisms.

Spice science should incorporate academic awareness with professional theory. The awareness component would provide an understanding of physical and psychosocial stressors, psychology of stress and human potentiality theories. Spice administration would include recreation planning, organization and evaluation, teaching and counselling methodologies, human movement and sports awareness. A breadth of vision and an awareness of the uses of a broad range of spices should characterize the development of spice science. Spice professionals would be chefs, concerned with program development as well as waiters who serve their customers. Professionals emerging from the program would recognize causes, symptoms, and treatment of distress and strategies for inducing positive stress. They would be aware of taste preferences and prepare comestibles uniquely suited to each consumer. (See Figure 1.)

The Recipe

The goal of Spice Age chefs is not simply to feed the hungry, but to add flavor to life. Because each consumer has a unique spice profile, every professional must seek the combination most likely to lead to a peak experience of stress. Basic guidelines will be unfulfilled needs and recreational interests. Through individual counselling and con-

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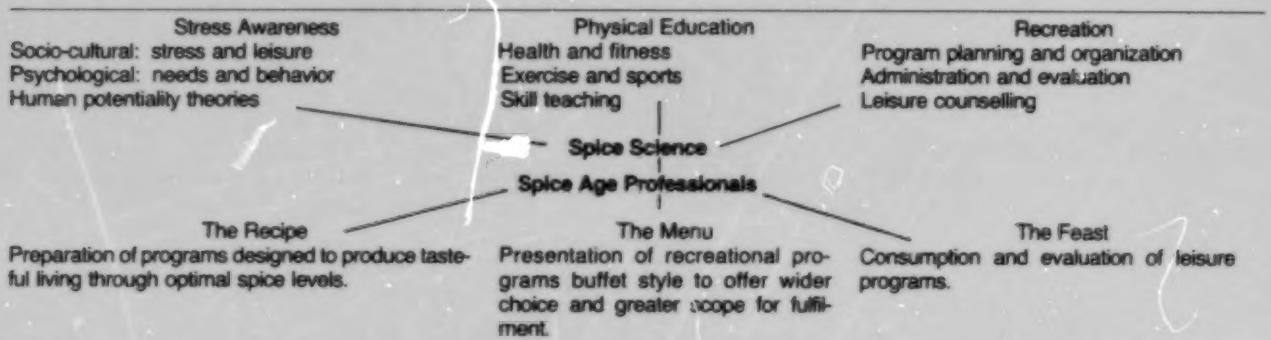

Figure 1. Evolution of Spice Science

sultation the chef will match his client's profile with appropriate recreational activities. Selected spices may serve to accentuate or even subtly alter the flavor of the meal of the day. Psychic indigestion may be replaced by a sense of well-being and contentment. The Figure 2 Spice Chart illustrates how needs and interests may be matched.

The Menu

The advent of the Spice Age marks the end of an era of cafeteria consciousness during which bland recreation programs were planned only for the "average" person. Tasteful living implies gourmet gratification. Individual preferences and personal tastes must be identified and catered to buffet style. Recreation shall no longer be spoon fed; leisure will be presented as an opportunity for savory and appetizing choices between a variety of recipes for fulfillment. The consumer will be encouraged to discover an optimal spice level. Meanwhile any bad taste in the mouth from distress in the daily regimen may be masked.

Stressors originating at work or home may be partially alleviated through appropriate leisure activities. These may range from tension-relieving meditative exercises to the inducement of stress through thrill-seeking risk exercise. Options will be limited only by the taste preferences of the consumer and the awareness of the chef. As the Spice Age moves from inception to consolidation, improvements should be apparent in the variety of the buffet and the quality of the service.

The Feast

Spice Age waiters will be known for their individual attentiveness. Every quirk and whim of the consumer will be noted as a psychological inventory is developed. This spice profile will serve as the basis for recommendations for continuing use of leisure and expansion of recreational activities. Condiments may make consumption more palatable. During the performance and participation stage, customers may request the salt of guidance ("sodium-show dem") and add the pepper of vigor. Spice levels are always critical; too much salt may create distasteful dependence, and the thrill of mastery may induce overenthusiastic application of pepper—a condition likely to bring the consumer to his sneeze. Through spice science the waiter would be trained to keep a tab on the enjoyment and satisfaction levels of the consumer. As the feast progresses, the intake will be closely monitered for its ability to satiate individual appetites. With the expert guidance of the waiter, customers will relish their daily meal of recreation and relaxation.

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Spice	Psycho-Social Need[2]	Recreational Program
Cinnamon (sinnerman)	Need for security and to escape from guilt and anxiety.	Programs which through self-induced stress distract clients from preoccupation with stressors in other spheres of life. Group therapy and individual counselling may be recommended in extreme cases.
Curry f(l)avor	Affiliative needs including social approval, status, acceptance and love.	Group therapy or interaction activities. Popular activities, e.g., disco dance, and social sports, e.g. tennis.
Mustard	Health and fitness	Vigorous exercise for those who like it hot.
Paprika (father of Eureka!)	Achievement	Discovery and adventure (mountain climbing/kayaking). Activities where client experiences a sense of mastery and competence.
Parsley sprig (garnish)	Aesthetic	Activities which stress appreciation of beauty in form, e.g. creative arts like sculpture, and kinesthetic appreciation, e.g. gymnastics and creative movement.
Pepper	Pursuit of vertigo Sensory stimulation	Thrill seeking, risk, exercise, e.g. ski and sky diving.
Sage (meditation)	Relaxation	Various tension relieving meditative programs ranging from autogenic and progressive relaxation techniques to mental imagery and biofeedback.
Vinegar	Ascetic	Programs of self-denial, e.g. weight loss, habit alteration, or midwinter swimming.

Figure 2. Spice Chart

Section III

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Play
(October 1979)

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The time for promulgating convoluted theories of play must end. Play scientists will never find the single theory of play, since play is a highly complex human phenomenon that can only be described and explained during a dialectical model. This dialectical view of play must deal with the most basic and essential issues of human development, whose core must be the nature-nurture issue supported by a cultural/historical milieu.

—Joseph Levy
Editor

the biological and cultural significance of human play: an anthropological view

By EDWARD NORBECK

As a subject of scientific investigation, play has only recently become more than a minor focus of study in the field of anthropology. The creation in 1974 of the Association for the Anthropological Study of Play is one of the markers of a rapidly rising current interest in this subject in anthropology as well as in other social sciences and biology. As a scholarly discipline that includes human biology, anthropology is interested in both the biological and the social or cultural significance of human play. The thesis of this article is that the two aspects, the biological and the cultural, are intimately related and mutually influence each other.

Adaptive Values of Play

An important question about play that has concerned biologists since the late nineteenth century is the nature of its adaptive value. A common assumption has been that play has such significance for species displaying this behavior. It is held that genetically transmitted traits which are characteristic of or universal among living forms must have such value. If such traits are deleterious to survival in any way they are eliminated by the process of natural selection; that is, they lead to extinction of the individuals or of the species having them. Early interpretations by biologists of the adaptive significance of play, such as the idea that play served as an outlet for surplus energy which might otherwise be somehow disadvantageous biologically (Groos, 1898), have long been questioned or discarded. The view that appears to be most commonly held in biological circles today is that play is valuable as preparation for adult life. Through infantile and juvenile play, members of a species become familiar with their natural environment, gain experience in socializing with other members of their species, and acquire motor and other skills needed in adult life for survival.

In the social sciences, a similar view has often been stated explicitly or, as in many studies of the play of human children, has sometimes been implicit. Like immature mammals of nonhuman species, children gain knowledge of their universe and learn patterns of socializing and adult roles by means of play. This idea seems reasonable enough, although it surely expresses only part of the many possible functions of human play that might be adaptive.

A relevant question to which this view does not offer an answer is the reason for the uneven development of play behavior among the different species and genera of mammals and the great intensification of play among human beings. This question has two facets. It asks what are the circumstances that led to the climax of play among human beings and inquires specifically how their intensified activities of play may have had survival value for them as a means of learning or in other ways.

Before suggesting answers to these questions let us examine some of the circumstances of play. Biologists studying nonhuman forms of life have faced problems of identifying play, such as the difficulty of distinguishing between exploration and play. Nevertheless, consensus appears in a number of matters (e.g., see Loizos, 1966, 1967). Play appears to be limited to mammals and a relatively few birds. Although generally characteristic of mammals, it is not uniformly developed among them. Its greatest development is among generalized species, that is, species with varied behavior that can live in a variety of environments. It is least common and, as among some species of highly specialized mice, appears sometimes to be absent among specialized mammals.

Play Is Characteristic of Biological Immaturity

Agreement also exists among biologists that play is most characteristic of the period of biological immaturity. Among most mammalian species, the young play much more than adults. In the immediate line of biological evolution leading to human beings, the incidence and intensity of play mount in accord with the position in the evolutionary sequence of emergence on the earth. Play is most highly developed among species of the Order of Primates, the latest zoological order to evolve, which includes lemurs, tarsiers, monkeys,

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apes, and human beings. Studies by primatologists (e.g., Simonds, 1977; Dolhinow, 1974) report an intensification of play within the order of primates that follows the order of their evolutionary development.

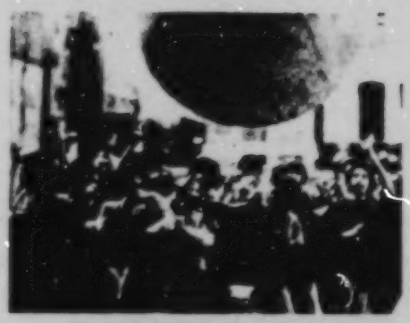
Observation of apes has centered upon chimpanzees, the primate regarded as man's closest living relative, and the ape which it has been possible to observe in nature most readily. Chimpanzees play much more than their evolutionary forerunners, monkeys, and the still earlier lemurs and tarsiers. The duration of the period of immaturity of primate species describes a similar developmental pattern, lengthening from the lemurs and tarsiers through monkeys and apes and on to mankind.

In all aspects of play, human beings are the ultimate players. Among them play is the most frequent, has by far the greatest variety of forms, and, much more than among lower primates and other mammals, is characteristic of adulthood. Human beings play from birth to death, although their forms of play may undergo much change as they age.

Among Mammals, Human Beings Are the Ultimate Players

Let us note also that the period of immaturity of primates is greater than that of other mammals and that the relative and absolute period of immaturity of human beings is by far the greatest among all living forms. Neoteny, a term meaning "the retention in the adult form of juvenile characteristics," is also a trait of primates and reaches its greatest height among human beings, whose physical traits in adulthood more closely resemble their immature forms than those of other primates. Let us note also that, in an evolutionary or biological sense, human beings are unspecialized and that they are often described as the least specialized species of the animal kingdom. We are capable of living in a large variety of physical environments and, concomitantly, the range of behavior of which we are capable is the most varied of living forms.

It is useful to summarize the foregoing statements briefly. Human beings play the most, have the longest period of physical immaturity,



Human beings play from birth to death and, much more than among other mammals, play is characteristic of adulthood.

photos: U.S. Bureau of Outdoor Education

are most similar in adult form to the form of childhood, are the least specialized, and have the widest range of kinds of behavior. If these traits are regarded as being linked, a tentative answer to the question of the biological significance of human play is suggested. The interpretation that will be offered here follows and further develops a long-established line of anthropological reasoning about the evolution of man's capacity for culture. It sees a relationship of mutual influence between culture, which is created by human beings, and certain human physical characteristics that are genetically inherited. The proclivity to play, which is clearly a genetically transmitted trait, has not heretofore been considered among the physical characteristics having an early and important relationship to culture. However, as the statements which follow will attempt to show, it may reasonably be so regarded.

Play Is Related to the Transmission of Culture

Human beings are unique in depending for survival upon culture and its transmission. Anthropological interpretation of the biological evolution of mankind sees culture itself as one of the factors involved in the evolutionary emergence of the species. Speech and the use of tools were early considered among these cultural innovations that have influenced the physical traits of human beings in a process of mutual feedback between the cultural and the biological. This process may be described simply by the statement that competence in speech and the making and use of tools fostered the survival and perpetuation of the individuals most adept in these regards. Thus it also fostered the establishment of physical traits linked with speech and tool use, such as upright posture, dexterous hands, an enlarged brain, and a nervous system suited for these activities.

Various other cultural innovations of seemingly great antiquity have been similarly considered. One of these is the division of labor between males and females, an innovation regarded as being determined principally by cultural rather than biological

Through infantile play, members of a species acquire motor and other skills needed in adult life for survival. Young human beings, with a long period of immaturity, are aided in this process by provision of specific opportunities for play experiences.

photos: Marjorie Blaufarb

factors. Creating dependence between males and females, the division of labor also fosters the development of the human family and the sharing of food and other necessities, a trait that is not characteristic of lower primates. The development of the human family as a cooperating group is then seen to encourage a long period of physical immaturity among the young, which further fosters the existence of the human family.

Other early cultural innovations serve as controls over behavior on an animal level. These include the establishment of sexual mores including incest prohibitions, which exist in all known human societies, the invention of categories of kin organized into corporate groups, and the establishment of social sanctions to support these norms as well as to support sharing and to limit aggression against one's fellows. Human beings have therefore been described as self-domesticated animals; that is, the process of natural selection has favored for survival and the leaving of progeny those individuals who have become well-domesticated social beings with the nervous systems and other traits that are characteristic of our species. One of these traits which we have already noted is the prolonged period of immaturity and dependence upon adult members of society, a circumstance fostered by the male-female dependency created by the division of labor and the associated practice of sharing, which is characteristically a strong value or obligation among culturally simple tribal people of modern times but, as we have noted, is not characteristic of non-human primates.

Prolonged immaturity may readily be seen to have cultural and survival value under the conditions of human life. Helplessness requires social groups, such as the family and larger kin groups. Until recent times, most societies were organized on the basis of kinship and it was by means of the cooperative actions of kin that human survival was made possible. Immaturity implies plasticity. Prolonged immaturity and plasticity provide favorable conditions for learning, a lengthy period for the assimilation of the cultural or learned ways by which human beings survive. We may note in passing that in our own society maturity in the sense of providing for oneself economically comes at a late date because of the growth of culture, that is, the amount of learning that is now necessary.

As we have noted, a link appears to exist in the class of mammals between play and immaturity, and human beings present the peaks of playfulness, of durations of immaturity, and of neoteny. The question now arises of the significance for human survival of the seeming linkage. Perhaps it is reasonable to accept Friedrich Schiller's idea that man is most human when he plays, since extreme playfulness is one of the distinguish-

The extreme playfulness of human beings—throughout the entire life cycle—is one of the distinguishing human traits.

ing human traits. Perhaps also it is possible to see in the linkage of play and immaturity—and the continuation of human play past physical immaturity through the entire life cycle—the biological as well as the cultural value of human play.

Let us accept as sound the view that for nonhuman animals the main adaptive value of play is preparation for adult life, an idea that, as we have stated, has also been applied to human play. For human beings, then, an extraordinarily large part of the lifespan is available for juvenile play and, through such play, for absorption of the culture necessary or useful for adult life. However, play does not cease when human adulthood is attained. The play of adults and, perhaps especially, of aged people cannot reasonably be regarded as learning in preparation for the future. The adaptive value of human play must accordingly lie in, or include, other matters. Two suggestions will be offered, both admittedly speculative, that concern possible relationships between culture and human biological traits. One of these traits, already considered in another context, is the proclivity to play that is evident throughout the entire human lifespan.

Human Play Is Marked by Its Dependence Upon Symbolizing

Let us note that the play of human beings and other mammals has much in common. Even interspecific play occurs between human beings and domesticated animals and it has sometimes been noted among wild mammals of different species. However, human play is highly distinctive in its dependence upon symbolizing, the unique human ability to attach meaning arbitrarily to things, and events, as, for example, in language. With the dubious exception of a few laboratory-trained chimpanzees, nonhuman mammals do not symbolize. They lack wit and humor, do not play computer games, and do not have sports, such as football and baseball, which depend upon rules and symbols. Perhaps only a few informal kinds of children's play that involve motor activity closely resemble the play of lower animals in all respects. Human play is infinitely greater in range and complexity than the play of other mammals. Moreover, it is always culturally molded, varying from society to society, and it is often wholly a cultural creation.

It is in this creative aspect that adaptive significance may be seen. The nature and sources of creativity remain mysterious, but human play and creativity have often been seen as close correlates (e.g., Lieberman, 1977). Indeed, in his well-known work *Homo Ludens*, the Dutch scholar Johan Huizinga contends that play is the well-spring of culture (Huizinga, 1944). If, as some modern scholars of human play hold, the entire realm of aesthetics is an elaboration of forms of play, the creative aspect of human play is great in this respect alone. A case may also be made for the value of play as leading to practical inventions of great importance to human life, such as the bicycle and automobile, which were once playthings. A crucial element involved in creativity is, of course, the freedom to act, invent, and improvise that is characteristic of play, a voluntary activity even though it follows rules invented by players. Following this reasoning, it is possible to state that play fosters human survival by fostering both learning and cultural creativity.

Play Fosters a Wide Range of Adult Behavior

A second human trait on the biological level that appears to be relevant here is the great range of behavior of which we are capable. Consideration of this subject suggests that a word of caution should be stated to avoid implying that unremitting play is the lone key to human survival and cultural growth. Varied behavior encourages the development of varied kinds of play, which, in turn, encourage cultural growth. However, varied behavior includes many actions that we do not call play, some of which, such as economically productive acts or work, also foster the development of culture and human continuity—and the human individuals competent in varied behavior.

Bearing in mind that human beings are the form of life most varied in its behavior, I think we should recognize that an interdependence of kinds of behavior exists. Like sleep, the ingestion of food, and the elimination of bodily wastes, play also has significance of a kind that is surely biological although poorly understood. That is, varied behavior appears to be a necessity for human well-being as well as a human capability. The ultimate human being is the person with varied behavior. In that behavior, play in its multiple human forms appears to hold a position of prominence and vital importance of which we are now only beginning to gain an understanding.

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a historical analysis of child's play

By RONALD C. A. JOHNSON and JOSEPH LEVY

Present-day images of childhood, both past and present, often conjure up ideas of a happy child, carefree and usually at play. These ideas have been reinforced by misconceptions of childhood, often idealized by stories such as Tom Sawyer and Huckleberry Finn. In reality history unfolds a much different picture. Instead of being left at play, children were often simply left alone. Child labor was common. Freedom of the child to play was often unthinkable.

Yet play has always been part of our culture. Whether repressed or allowed to flourish, play had an important role for the child. As one examines the history of children's play, a variety of values emerge. Whether viewed as a waste of time, an immoral act, just a diversion, a training mechanism, or a means to develop skills and socialization for the child, play has always been important. This article examines, by use of a series of time periods, the changing values toward play and the changing attitudes toward the child, that is—child's play.

DATE: 5th century BC to 4th century AD
ERA: Graeco-Roman
REPRESENTATIVES: Plato, Aristotle, Quintilian, Seneca

In many respects the classical era of Greece and Rome was one of the most enlightened of all the periods being reviewed. Although child labor was common and life was by no means a totally playful existence, children had an important place in classical society. Likewise, leisure and play were each regarded with value, a concept to be lost during the early Christian era.

Play was given a valuable position in the life of the child according to both Plato and Aristotle. Both viewed play and leisure as an opportunity to develop or educate the child in the proper ways of society. Through play, the child gained mental and physical skills and was socialized in a manner that would equip the child to serve the "state."

Aristotle believed the child should spend the first seven years at home. Furthermore, he stated that till the age of five he would impose no lessons and no tasks upon the child: "It is a time of games which should be mimicries of future earnest, a time of tales and stories, which should be foreshadowings of future knowledge." From the age of seven to puberty the body was being trained; from puberty to the age of 21 the mind was being cultivated; at 21 the young man was supposed to bring to the service of the country the coordinated and trained vigor of both body and mind.

DATE: Fourth to fourteenth centuries
ERA: Middle Ages
REPRESENTATIVES: Augustine, Dominic, Thomas Aquinas

After the fall of the Roman Empire, the importance of the military ideal of the early Greeks and Romans gave way to a more spiritual ideal of life. People turned from a concern with self in this world to a concern for self in the next world and preparation for it.

The Middle Ages marked a period of a lack of concept of childhood. Children were viewed simply as small adults. But even as adults their status was quite low, often leading to children acting as servants at early ages, or being sent away from home to monastaries, nunneries, foster families or simply being ignored at home. The need for growth and development was not part of their thinking. Of great importance to the child was the growth of the Church as the major social force.

Obedience and passive acceptance of God's will characterized the ethos of these times; play, the active seeking of new experience, retained little place in the ideals of this world. The body was thought to detract from more spiritual activities; thus every effort was made to curb its impulses. The body and all its needs must be severely disciplined; to take pleasure in bodily activity would lead to eternal torment.

The Church, in general, condemned all games and play, choos-

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ing to regard play as sin. The main thrust of daily life was to resist temptation. Children, likewise, were to resist temptation, for as "small adults" they too were subjects to such allurements. As potential recruits to the Christian life children were to be trained in virtue and self-denial.

Because of the miniature adult concept of children, children's play was not distinguished from that of adults. Play in most instances took place in adult settings. Consequently, children frequented taverns and wine shops and participated in games of war and gambling as an adult would. Despite Church condemnation of play, games, and idleness, such activities were commonplace.

DATE: Fifteenth and sixteenth centuries
ERA: Renaissance
REPRESENTATIVES: Thomas More, Michel de Montaigne

This period saw the emergence of a natural curiosity and active spirit which wanted to transcend the ascetic ideals and the near-exclusive attention to preparation for the next world that was the concern of the middle ages. The prevalent attitude was that one must maintain discipline "left you ruin the child." However, a greater emphasis was being placed upon the physical welfare and happiness of the child. Play began to have its place, *but* virtue came first.

With the advent of the Renaissance came renewed attention to classical literatures and ideals and the beginning of a rapid advance in knowledge of the environment. People began to cultivate an independence and a questioning, critical outlook.

As in previous centuries, there was no separate world of toys or games for children. Children and adults participated in the same activities, enjoyed the same toys, and listened to the same fairy stories. Adults and children lived together, never apart. They ate and drank together and frequented the same taverns. Even what we refer to as nursery rhymes were shared. It was not until the mid-eighteenth century that the first nursery rhyme book for children appeared.

DATE: Late nineteenth and early
ERA: Puritanism
REPRESENTATIVES: John Locke, Cotton Mather, Increase Mather

The main emphasis of this period was self-control and parental control. Consequently, many repressive rules were developed, referred to by one historian as "swaddling in Calvinism." Children were taught proper Christian behavior primarily by corporal punishment and the fear of God. The child was safeguarded from the lax habits of play by rigorous schedules; for example, schooling lasted for nine hours each day, six days per week. Internal controls of the child were primarily used—breaking the will, hardening the emotions, disciplining the mind.

Colonial North America displayed a great distaste for amusements or play. The anti-play (Puritan) ethic included children's play. Play was equated with idleness and idleness was to be avoided. The emphasis was that everyone had to direct all energies to work.

In Europe during this time period a different attitude was developing. Although they still desired to safeguard morality and to educate the child, there emerged a distinction between "good" games to be encouraged and "evil" games to be condemned. Oddly, in modern perspective, gambling was accepted. Taverns, as we might expect, were condemned. Another distinction was also making its appearance—a distinction between games for adults and games for children. Childhood at least was being discovered.

DATE: Eighteenth century
ERA: Enlightenment
REPRESENTATIVES: Jean Jacques Rousseau, Friedrich Schiller, Friedrich Froebel

This century marked a decrease in physical punishment of children although the old fashioned whippings did not end. Children were still made to suffer, often by being shut up in the dark. Children were being prayed with, but seldom played with; they were being hit, but seldom whipped. Although the life of the child was harsh by today's standards, adults were beginning to understand and to sympathize with the child. Jean Jacques Rousseau called special attention to the needs of children. He encouraged interest in the *process* of growing up, not simply in the end *product*. Rousseau admonished mothers and fathers to take on the role of *parents* and play with their children.

Great progress in all areas of the sciences led to a new attitude toward the place and importance of physical exercise in education. The health of the child became a major consideration in the educational philosophies of people like Rousseau and Froebel. It was in this period that European educators saw the child as a potential and actual social change agent who must be helped to understand and direct his power.

In North America, society was less "enlightened." Play was still viewed as an inappropriate activity not to be encouraged, unless it was related to religion. Childhood was not yet established as a separate social identity in America. Children were still seen in economic terms and as needing training in virtue.

DATE: Nineteenth century
ERA: Ambivalence
REPRESENTATIVES: Thorstein Veblen

The nineteenth century marked a decrease in the concept of trying to conquer the child's will and a move to training or guiding the child to conform and socializing him/her. Rousseau's concept that children are basically good, with a capacity to reason, and that their natures

need only to be brought out was gaining in acceptance, but Rousseau's views were by no means universally held. There were still many who believed that the child was evil and corrupt and required to be broken or brought into submission. These contrary viewpoints continued throughout the nineteenth century resulting in constant conflict between change and conservatism. The ideas of Rousseau, the emergence of a higher socioeconomic strata (leisure class), the reformist and revolutionary ideas of mid-century forced society to accept two major changes—(1) a distinction between the child and the adult and (2) the acceptance of play as an end in itself.

By the end of the nineteenth century North America had experienced a tremendous change in play. Despite the resistance of the Puritan anti-play ethic there appeared such changes as the rise of sports, the acceptance of children's games, the growth of commercial amusement (e.g., Barnum's circus), and the beginnings of playgrounds for children. By the end of the century, Victorian repression was ending, while play was recognized as a basic human need.

DATE: Late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries
ERA: Progressive Education
REPRESENTATIVES: John Dewey, Maria Montessori

This period saw many social changes take place. North America was becoming more urbanized and industrialized. The traditional social activities, such as work bees and spelling matches, were on the decline with no apparent suitable replacement. Children were left with few outlets for play other than self-directed street play. The dangers to health, safety, and morals were quickly realized. This, accompanied by the growing feeling of the decadence of the city and the increased value placed upon the child, necessitated action. Society saw the need to keep the children off the streets and promote socially acceptable behavior.

To meet this new challenge, environments were created to provide for play. Sand gardens appeared in Boston in the late nineteenth century. These were followed by the development of what we now refer to as traditional playgrounds, where the emphasis was upon apparatus and physical activity. Other forms of child centered play environments or institutions came on the scene. Boys and girls clubs, Four-H clubs, and public recreation facilities became commonplace. Society was providing the play to develop good citizens.

DATE: Post World War II to the present
ERA: Developmental Education
REPRESENTATIVES: Jean Piaget, Erik Erikson

If the past few decades attitudes toward the child and towards play have altered greatly. The child is now viewed as a unique individual with particular needs and desires. Parents and educators now perceive their role as one of fulfilling the child's needs and helping the child to develop as a person and as an individual.

According to Erikson, one of the most widely recognized proponents of developmental psychology, play has a major role in the individual and social unfolding of the child. "Play . . . is a function of the ego, an attempt to synchronize the bodily and social processes of the self." (Erikson, 1963, p. 211)

This atittude has been translated into two phases of play during this period. The first phase is represented by the belief that play aids the social, psychological, and physical growth of the child. Erikson sees play as the child's means of coping with the experience he encounters. In spontaneous play the child is healing himself. Erikson chides modern society for separating play and childhood from reality and adult life. Such a separation prevents the child from creating model situations for exploration and thus from advancing his mastery of self and the environment.

Such thinking changed the emphasis from either occupying the child or preventing juvenile delinquency (which has been two previously accepted goals of play) to emphasizing the total development of the child. Representative of this thinking was the development of the creative play environment. The standard criteria for children's play became "does the play setting provide the opportunity for imagination, growth, and total development of the child?"

The second phase went beyond creative thinking. It emphasized the need of the child to learn, to have freedom, and to have choice. This is best exemplified by the rationale of the adventure playground where children can be themselves, where they can learn to be free. Play becomes important in and for itself.

A Child-Centered Age

An examination of child's play shows that both the attitude of society toward the child and the form of play for the child have altered drastically over time. Western culture has moved from a time of ignoring the child as a unique being with his/her own unique personality and developmental problems to a time when great value is placed upon both the child and child's play. As a result, we are presently in a child-centered age.

This "New Age" has brought a variety of changes in child's play; we now view play as more child centered, more imaginative, more self-directed, and more concerned with freedom. The form and accepted value have obviously changed in a manner which we approve of today. It would be difficult for most modern North Americans to accept the attitude toward children or child's play that was expressed in our past. Change from the past was inevitable; change to some future form or expression is just as inevitable. The question we must now ask ourselves is "whereto the twenty-first century?"

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natural movement for children

guidelines on play and physical activity for young children

By DAVID J. STANIFORD

"She was more interested in the box than the present inside."

"They love to build forts out of all those old boxes."

"He seems to like breaking things."

"Some days they fight all day long."

"She never stops moving."

Every parent has said one or another of these things. They reflect some of the instinctive, often compulsive things young children do. These statements also reflect the intense efforts of conscientious parents to understand and help their children. Situations such as the few described above, involving physical activity, often disturb parents and teachers and seem to resist even the most intelligent approaches to understanding and guiding children.

Movement, and the desire to move, are compulsive for most young children. All children, even the most timid, enjoy and need movement. It is natural, then, that we should think that the most fundamental means by which children learn about the world around them and about themselves, is through movement. However, in many homes and classrooms, little movement is tolerated. In the past, many parents and teachers have defined good, capable children as those who pay attention, cooperate and *sit still.*

Children need outlets for tension; they need opportunities for "ruff and tumble" play and for exploratory movement. They need time for instinctive and spontaneous exploration of their world. They need chances to test their skills, to show them to parents and others, to succeed and fail in a continuous ebb and flow of physical experience. These things are natural for children.

A child who continuously hits other children or habitually breaks things may need more outlets for aggressive activity. Fighting (thrusting, punching, striking) and yielding kinds of activities are natural ones for young children. In fact, they are fundamental in the movement patterns of young children.

Early childhood is a time when children like to play, experiment, and explore. The opportunity to do things is important for children's growth and development. Early motor, mental, social, and emotional abilities are formed during this period. Children need to be able to set their own pace, within reason, and structured situations that will create fear or anxiety should be avoided. When young children are involved in games, they should be allowed to invent their own simple games and to make up their own rules and regulations. Games should be essentially played according to children's needs and rules and not to those of adults. For the most part, when physical skills are to be learned during early childhood, they should be learned as part of natural play, exploration, and experimentation.

Movement Means Freedom

Movement to the child means freedom. It means, or should mean, freedom from the restrictions of narrow physical confinements and freedom to expand, through creative body expressions. To be "on the move" to the child is to be free. Natural free flowing movement experiences are important, too, in terms of safety. In a basic sense, it is important for survival. It enables avoidance of many forms of bodily harm, and, it is a ready defense against several kinds of danger. At an early age, the child learns quite naturally, it seems, that a quick movement, timely and in the right direction, is an important protective device. It often enables the child to elude the angry intentions of playmates or a frustrated mother's chase.

My ideas of natural movement for children have been influenced by research, observations of children in primitive cultures, and by the writings of Rousseau, Froebel, Montessori, Gesell, Mead, and, particularly, Laban. Rosseau, for example, advocated a natural development of children, an environment where children were encouraged to develop at their own rate, according to their own natural rhythms. Through a basic understanding of Laban's movement analysis, we can provide children with quality opportunities for creative, expressive and functional movement. Laban was insistent that his was not a method, system, or particular tech-

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nique but rather a way of working, based on the principles underlying all movement which could be applied in many walks of life—in the arts, industry, drama, on the stage, in therapy, in daily living, and with young children.

A brief explanation of Laban's ideas as they apply to natural movement for children is given here. These ideas are useful not only as a guide in providing an environment for active movement but also to allow an effective means for observing and stimulating quality in movement of young children.

Harmony and Efficiency

Laban believed that all observable movement stems from an inner feeling (response to impressions) or impulse. A natural control of this inner impulse is important for efficiency in movement. Control of inner participation and of rhythm, shape, and form are important. Laban saw a natural harmony in bodily actions where the body is seen as an instrument of the individual's personality. Much of Laban's work with dancers and educators was tied up with an understanding and analysis of the tensions and release of tension of the body in a natural and harmonious way. Laban's understanding of effort and space orientation has particular importance for work with young children. His philosophy of "dance for all" and his means of classifying and experiencing the natural order in movement have greatly influenced this writer.

In Laban's concept of "effort," the expression "making or exerting an effort" is used to describe how individuals have the capacity to switch on and ignite the mechanisms of inner and outer operations which, in fact, cause movement of some kind. This movement or effort can vary from the gesture of one finger to a whole body turn or twist. The effort, however, can in fact have different characteristics, although it may have the same aim. This we can see when several children climb a ladder or jump over a rope—all accomplish the same task, but each does it in a different way—*their* personal way. Children can in turn, perform movements that are functional or expressive, which may have different effort qualities.

Expressive movement is where the body is used as an instrument to convey thoughts, feelings, and moods. Children often express their feelings of joy, sadness, or frustration directly through their bodies. *Functional movement* is the type of movement used to accomplish a task or job. Many work-like movements, such as sweeping, raking, and digging, that children like to engage in are considered functional type movements. Many of the games we traditionally play have some functional objective, such as shooting a basket, hitting a target, or scoring a goal.

The *effort* quality of movement is essentially the way (how) we use our body. The four motion factors of time, weight, space, and flow are considered essential to an understanding of, and to efficient observation of, both functional and expressive movement. The *time* factor is essentially concerned with speed in motion and the amount of time used in a movement action. Movements can vary between fast (sudden) and slow (sustained). The ability, for example, to accelerate and decelerate, are important elements for young children to master for safety in motion and for use later in various sports skills. The *weight* factor, or force factor, is also important. The conscious control of energy output produces different intensities of strength and lightness in movement. Children, to move naturally and efficiently, must learn how to work within the forces of gravity. Their adaptation to the force of gravity depends to a large extent on the way they use the elements of weight efficiently.

Space is the medium which the mover uses. A keen awareness of space develops when the child is freed to explore the environment. Children, if allowed to explore, easily become aware of what is in their personal space or general space. Spatial substances are part of the child's world and his comprehension of his place in it. It is important for children to experiment with and explore space, in terms of where the body is, where it can move, and what it can do in space. Included here would be understanding of direction, range of movement, levels, patterns, heights, and distances.

Flow is probably one of the most important motion factors in the development of early body and skill movements. Early gross motor patterns of young infants are usually characterized by jerky kinds of movements. Encouragement in control of the way movements flow together, could be a vital factor in enhancing natural skilled movement. Flow can be bound or free. Bound movements are hesitant, cautious, and restrained. Free movements, on the other hand, tend to be ongoing, and fluent. Encouragement of free flowing and skilled movements are important to the later development of efficient dance, games, and sports skills.

Body Awareness Is Basic

Together with the qualitative aspects, which we have called effort, the development of body awareness, space awareness, and relationships is essential toward establishing a broad movement base on which children can draw for later use. *Body awareness* is concerned essentially with what the body is doing. This includes the basic actions of the body (bend, stretch, curl), actions of the body parts (such as supporting the body, leading actions, applying force or receiving weight), the activities of the body (locomotor, nonlocomotor, manipulative), and shapes the body can make. *Space awareness* is concerned with where the body is moving. The space areas of personal and general space, directions, pathways, levels, planes, and extensions are important to broadening space awareness in children. *Relationships* are concerned with what relationships are occurring as movement proceeds. Relationships occur with oneself, with objects, individuals, and groups (to and with each other), and with equipment, apparatus, rules, and boundaries.

Unrestricted Play Opportunities

Natural movement for the preschool child consists of providing opportunities for exploration of the environment, for exploration of bodily actions, and for development of relationships with objects, other people, surroundings, and equipment. Opportunities for development of quality

in movement should also be freely available with parents conscious of the importance of quality in effort. Opportunities should be provided for unrestricted active play in an environment free from hazards, such as an unprotected fire or dangerous steps.

Provision for natural activities such as climbing, hanging, swinging, and balancing, as well as adequate room to move freely and exuberantly on the ground or floor, should be made. Just as a cat can assess its own ability naturally to jump up on a high wall and will not attempt it, if it is unsure of its ability to succeed, so will a small child climb just as far as he/she feels able to go. Encouragement, appreciation, and understanding of efforts will spur the child on to further achievements when ready, and the self-confidence thus engendered has an integrating effect on the whole personality. Such confidence, research tells us, may even spill over into other areas of development such as language and social development.

Movement in response to a rhythm begins in early infancy when mothers rock their babies or bounce them on her knee in time to a rhyme, jingle or beat of music. Early exposure and stimulation to rhythm is important through active singing games, free exploration to drums or recorded music, or rhythmic appreciation of nursery rhymes.

Ideal conditions for body awareness and space awareness are not always available in the modern high-rise apartment. However, parents are encouraged to seek out a wealth of ideas (Staniford, 1979) for stimulating natural movement both inside and outside the home, on special outings and during special occasions. Opportunities should be available to the child each day and every day for moving naturally in an unrestricted and interesting environment.

In summary then, in the preschool years, movement is largely exploratory and is a natural means of learning, self-expression, and release of tensions as well as of growth and development. Through movement, the young child develops skill, emotional control, and cooperation with others. Before going to school, children need room for unrestricted active play, in a safe environment. They need apparatus on which to climb and balance and a large supply of small equipment such as boxes, blocks, hoops, balls and objects of various sizes to use in their own time. Rhythmic movements to simple singing games, nursery rhymes, and music help the young child to feel rhythms.

Boundless energy expressed through running, climbing, hanging, throwing, catching, kicking, jumping, and every other movement known to them is characteristic of young children. Some do not have enough energy to keep up; they find their satisfaction in less demanding activities. Some would like to join the active, but do not have the skill or confidence to do so. These, the teacher and parent must encourage.

Stimulating Imagination

The play of young children is exuberant, experimental, dramatic, and make-believe. Play reflects the child's ideas of what the role of mother, father, children, grandparents, neighbors, visitors, heroes, and others mean to him/her. "Things" stimulate the imagination. The tricycle becomes a motorcycle, fire engine, or airplane; the chairs in the room become a steam engine. Big blocks are piled high as lookout towers are built. Playing with a ball may consist of throwing it into the air with no attempt to catch it, but chasing madly after it, as it rolls or bounces away.

Jungle gyms, horizontal ladders, climbing bars, balance beams, and jumping platforms challenge the rather self-centered five-year old. Most of them would rather play alone or in small informal groups. Although they are learning to be social, they are not ready for activities that call for sustained cooperation. Lack of experience in dealing with differences of opinion often causes explosive outbursts of temper.

For most young children, catching, throwing, and batting are difficult skills to learn yet they want to do them well. While some children master these skills with relative ease, more often a spirit of bravado brings out a

reckless "that's easy, watch me do it" response. When one realizes, for example, what a complex skill throwing is, one can understand why it takes a child a long time to learn to throw skillfully, why it takes patience and understanding on the part of the parents and teachers.

At the toddler, preschool stage of development, the child is curious, in-

quisitive, and anxious to explore a variety of movement activities and environments. Generally, these young children are self-centered, rather than peer-oriented; they need exposure to more individual and small group activities. This stage is an important learning age, where the child needs patience, guidance, and love. Types of suitable activities include basic movement activities such as walking, running, jumping, hopping, leaping, skipping, swinging, striking, and climbing. Simple games involving siblings, parents, or peers with any of these activities are popular. Movement to varying rhythms, water orientation activities, sand box, mud, and snow play, and make-believe mini-games are encouraged. Activities employing a variety of equipment and mediums, painting, and music are other sources of stimulation, learning, and socialization.

A Role for Adults

Appropriate approaches recommended to adults for moving with young children include exposing them to a broad variety of mediums combined with movement, varying surfaces and textures, visual stimuli, and music. Children should be given opportunities to explore a wide variety of surfaces and textures, which may include sand, grass, rubber, water, ice, snow, wood, and so on. These experiences should be of the natural free exploratory type where a safe environment and some adult supervision can be available, particularly for the very young. Visual stimuli from children's art and sculpture activities can be useful. Children's natural joy in rhythmic movement can be stimulated by various musical instruments, which they can play themselves, and the use of records and tapes.

For children in these early years, emphasis should be on improvised equipment for use in play, such as blocks, large cartons, rubber balls, bean bags, hoops, ropes, and rhythm and percussion instruments. When groups play and move together, there should be adequate equipment for everyone and opportunities for moving freely from place to place. This equipment should be freely available, in a safe environment, and should be of various sizes, shapes, weights, and colors. Playground equipment should be simple, exciting, flexible, and natural for all basic movement activities. The major emphasis should be on allowing the child to find his or her own way of moving over, under, around, and through playground environments in his/her own time and space. Both fathers and mothers are encouraged to help children move spontaneously in their own time to explore a varied environment.

During these play and movement opportunities, the supervision and active participation of a parent or other adult should be available or close by. The adult relationship should be informal, warm, patient, motivating, understanding, and consistent. The adult in this kind of situation should be readily available to act as mediator and model in the socialization process, particularly as children gradually progress from egocentric play to parallel type play to group play. Positive reinforcement should be used as much as possible and opportunities for frequent success should be encouraged. Adults are encouraged to often become a part of the play process of the child, where physical activity becomes not only a source of physical and social interaction, but an essential communicative and learning medium between adult and child.

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limitations to play in the context of sport

By
DOUGLAS A. KLEIBER

Conceptual ambiguities seem to abound in discussions of the defining aspects of play, games, and sports and their commonalities. Because of this, one can be a bit arbitrary in adopting "working" definitions from which to proceed in analyzing the antecendents and consequences of recreational behavior. But the ambiguities are worth confronting—primarily because there may be implications for research and practice—and fortunately, there have been enough advances in the social science of play, games, and sport to suggest some distinctions which may ultimately be useful.

To consider just a few, this article will focus on play, games, and sport with respect to *intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation, internal structure,* and the role of divergent thinking. Further, the significance of structural variation in games and sports for personality development and socialization will be briefly discussed. Finally, some practical implications for game and sport "management" will be offered.

To clarify what play is in relation to sport is to first review what it *has been.* We have always thought of sports that are "games" as being "played" by "players." Sport has been discussed as a "game occurrence" by virtue of the fact that it involves "playful competition" (Loy, McPherson, & Kenyon, 1978). Physical educators regard play as a basic element of sport-related curricula—both in practice and theory. But how much do the players in sport really *play*? The importance of the outcome may make it all too serious to be play. And is it only the professionals who look toward the payoffs of sport involvement, or do children also have an awareness of the consequences of their sport performances? Is the abandonment of decision-making powers (choosing sides, refereeing, etc.) by children to adults done in appreciation of the freedom to "get on with the game" or does it represent a change in consciousness about what "playing games" means? Is the conservatism and conformity found in much of the sport establishment purely political coincidence or is it a result of extended experience with game forms that do not allow for playful divergence?

Considering the classic works of Huizinga (1955), Mead (1934), and Piaget (1951) and the more recent efforts of Berlyne (1968), Bruner (1976), Csikszentimihalyi (1975), Ellis (1973), Levy (1978), Lieberman (1977), and Sutton-Smith (1976), we have some concepts with which to address such questions. Starting with the question of "why," play can generally be characterized as intrinsically motivated. It is its own reward and need not be reinforced with extrinsic consequences (Ellis, 1973; Levy, 1978). To get beyond the circularity of that definition, certain conditions have been proffered to characterize the context of play, conditions creating the experience of challenge and the opportunity for a sense of mastery (Csikszentimihalyi, 1975; Levy, 1978). Related physiological response patterns have even been charted in terms of information processing and arousal modulation. (Berlyne, 1968; Ellis, 1973). By contrast, the social consequences of playing well and winning in organized sports generally suggest a strong extrinsic basis of motivation, however intrinsically rewarding the experience is initially.

Children Are "Professionalized"

The possibility of changing the motivational set, turning the expressive patterns of play into the instrumental patterns of work, is suggested by both theoretical argument and empirical research (Lepper and Greene, 1978). Indeed, there is evidence that with age, children become more "professionalized" in their approach to games, emphasizing more frequently the value of the product (winning) rather than the process (playing fair or doing well) (Webb, 1969).

We should take care, however, not to overstate the case. We still recognize in sport evidence of the feeling that it is somehow separate from the real world, a quality Huizinga uses to define play. This is especially true for spectators who have some distance from the event and can get absorbed in ways that are otherwise disconnected from their mundane exis-

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tence. Surely this is a source of the "joy" to which Novak alludes (Novak, 1976). But to use Huizinga's word "disinterest" to characterize the experience of the player is to miss the significance of sport performance in the total achievement orientation of most athletes, from the 9-year-old to the professional. There is, in fact, a ladder of excellence that is apparent to the youngest of players and this is readily reinforced by the sport establishment which is selecting the most competent at each age level. The excitement is there, the joy may even be there, but the *play*, where the experience is its own reward and is separate from ordinary reality, is not.

To consider the processes of play, games, and sports, how they unfold, is to raise other distinctions. While some play theorists focus on the underlying motivational factors giving rise to play, others emphasize the cognitive processes that accompany playful behaviors (Piaget, 1951; Lieberman, 1977; Sutton-Smith, 1976). These processes can generally be categorized as divergent thinking, the manipulation of reality to some largely idiosyncratic end. It follows, intuitively then, that the imposition of structure on play behavior will inevitably suppress the divergent patterns and thus change the nature of the experience.

Can Games Really Be Play?

Such is the reasoning leading to the conclusion that games, with the inherent structure created by establishing rules and roles, cannot accurately be regarded as play in the strictest sense. But the play of games comes in the *creation* of that structure and in the awareness that the structure is a medium of shared play and can be modified in whatever way necessary to protect that ludic mutuality. While games allow for manipulation to varying degrees in the course of play, it is important to recognize that the play of all games comes in the process of "setting it up" as something different from the real world (see Bateson, 1971; Goffman, 1961; Denzin, 1975). Control of that process is critical to the experience of play, and thus the predefined, prearranged, and constantly managed character of

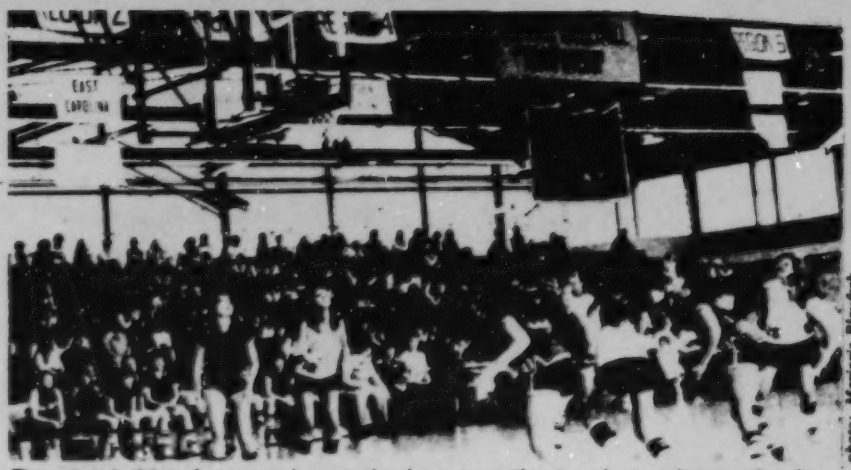

photo: Marjorie Blaufarb

There is a ladder of success in organized sport—acting to select and recognize the most competent at each age level—which results in removing the element of play, in which the experience is its own reward.

the games of organized sport reduces this element of play. It is true, however, that the "organizers" (the coaches, the league administrators, etc.) who manipulate the conditions and initiate the action at all levels, are, in fact, "playing" in much the same way as a group of neighborhood kids who evolve a driveway basketball game.

It is also important to note that in creating conditions that make for an "unpredictable outcome," the essence of a game in Sutton-Smith's formulations (1971), a maximum challenge is likely to be generated. League officials have this in mind when they utilize a draft system to assign the next strongest player to the next weakest team and children operate from this principle when they "choose up sides." But players in organized sports have no involvement in this process, and while they may appreciate a good (i.e., close) game, the continuing significance of their own externally-defined "success" is likely to have the effect of subordinating that as a concern.

Are Improvisation and Divergent Thinking Possible?

Experience in organized sport can be examined further for elements of play by considering the role of divergent thinking in the course of the activity itself. How much latitude is there for variation, manipulation, and experimentation? To the extent that performance in sport is totally proscribed, divergent thinking is at a minimum. However, improvization and the use of innovative strategy are characteristic of the most successful competitors in some sports and while the factors discussed earlier may mitigate against calling their performance playful, the role and extent of divergent, creative thinking should be recognized. Nevertheless, it is probably true that the number who respond to competitive sports in this manner are few, being either highly accomplished or among those who are not serious competitors and have nothing to lose.

Can We Make Play Out of Today's Organized Sports?

The importance of distinguishing play from sport in the preceding discussion is primarily in undermining the assumption of similarity. Once the distinctions are clearly appreciated we can move to a position where evaluation of each in terms of psychosocial development can proceed. The suggestion is, for example, that rather than planning or programming on the assumption that "play, games, and sports are good for kids," play might be encouraged to nurture imagination and promote creativity while sport could be considered for its potential in responsibility training. Such efforts have been discussed elsewhere (Kleiber, 1978).

There is one important question which remains: "How and to what extent can structural modifications change the character of the activity?" It should be fairly clear by now that

play can be turned into sport quite easily—by *organizing:* taking a group of kids who are playing on their own in a park, for example, and forming a park team that competes regularly as part of a local and regional program. Making play out of organized sports is a more difficult but not unsurmountable task. Short of offering a blue print for such changes (which of course, should only be considered with clearly defined objectives in mind), the reader is referred to Bernard Dekoven's delightful book, *The Well-Played Game* (1978). In it he outlines the theory and practice of game building and establishing play communities, where competition is intense but the structures are managed by the participants to their mutual benefit. The important thing, whether it be with children or adults, is the assurance that decision-making power is in the hands of the participants. They create and they modify.

Preestablished agency and interscholastic leagues are obviously not the places to start in attempting to make such changes, while incipient and loosely structured park programs may be. But is there then no way of infusing the elements of play into highly organized sports? Not if play is defined exclusively in terms of divergent thinking.

The intrinsic rewards of play, however, can be better approximated in the sport context in a couple of ways. To the extent possible, extrinsic rewards (trophies, ribbons, etc.) can be minimized, despite their popularity. If teams can be reorganized during the course of the season, balance can be achieved and "winners" and "losers" unseated from those enviable and unenviable positions. Coaching models can be developed that help children to stay process-oriented, to find enjoyment ("flow" as Csikszentmihalyi calls it) in concentrating on the physical challenges at hand with little regard to the outcome. Some of these effects will be harder to produce than others, but for those who would maintain that play has a place in sports, at least for children, such changes are among those that are necessary.

photo: University of Tennessee

photo: Cedar Rapids (Iowa) Community Schools

The play elements of sports can be increased by minimizing reliance on trophies and ribbons. Young people should be encouraged to stay process-oriented and to concentrate on the physical challenges at hand with less regard for the outcomes. Sports should have a place for play, especially with young children.

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toward a science of playground design: principles of design for play centers for all children

By LOUIS BOWERS

The play of children is universally characterized by spontaneity, freedom, creativity, discovery, and joy. It can be observed that young children do not wait for a specified time to play, but rather initiate at every opportunity voluntary play activities as an important part of experiencing and discovering life. The play and developmental experiences of children form an integrated process through which self is explored in relationship to the world.

Play takes many forms in making its contributions to the physical, psychological, and social development of children. Its most obvious form is the readily observable movement of children engaged in play. Young children both desire and need to involve their bodies in activities requiring forceful contraction of the muscles in order to promote growth and maintain the size and strength of both the muscular and skeletal systems. In addition, the growing child also requires sensory motor experiences for the achievement of control and coordination of movements of the body. Physical activity in which the body is moved up, over, down, under, and through a variety of environmental challenges is both necessary for and enjoyable to the young child. Thus, basic movements such as rolling, crawling, climbing, walking, jumping, leaping, running, and sliding are natural and important expressions in the natural play of children.

The play of children in its natural form is readily expressed in the accessible play space which has grass, uneven terrain, climbing trees, sand, water, and materials for building. However, with a continuing increase in human population these play spaces are being replaced by buildings, parking lots, housing developments, and agriculture. In an effort to substitute for the vanishing natural play areas, parks, schoolgrounds, and backyards have been designated as the outdoor places in which children should play. Isolated pieces of traditional play equipment such as swings, seesaws, slides, merry-go-rounds, and monkey bars have been designed by adults to provide for variety within these often barren, reclaimed play spaces.

Play equipment, if it is to serve the needs for play of children, must accommodate all the players. All the players include the young child with limited control of movements, children with varying degrees of physical and/or mental impairments, as well as able-bodied children with high levels of movement capabilities. Currently, there are over seven million school-aged children in the United States who because of an impairment or lack of development of the skeletal, muscular, or nervous systems are classified as physically, intellectually, or emotionally handicapped. While the rate of development of basic movement abilities in these children is usually slower than that of the nonhandicapped child, the sequence and pattern of motor development is basically the same for both groups of children. Furthermore, a recent study by Bowers (1977) reports that when provided accessible and safe play equipment handicapped children select play activities similar to those of a group of nonhandicapped children matched for age and sex as they engaged in play in the same play environment.

The natural play of all children, which is characterized by exploration, creativity, and gaining mastery over new physical challenges, is in direct conflict with the limited ways traditional play equipment can be used. Play equipment that allows only one child at a time to climb, slide, or swing and further designates that these activities be performed in a singular prescribed way severely limits the imaginative play of children.

Whenever the natural exploratory play behavior of children is in conflict with the single-standard design of the play equipment, the behavior is deemed inappropriate and often results in an accident. A U.S. Consumer Product Safety Commission Report (1975) indicates that during the year 1974, approximately 118,000 persons in the United States received hospital emergency room treatment for injuries related to playground equipment. Over three-fourths of the reported injuries involved children under 10 years of age.

A University of Iowa Playground Accident Report (1973) further indicates that less than half of an investi-

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gated number of playground accidents resulted from poor construction or inadequate maintenance while the remainder of the accidents were attributed to inappropriate use of the equipment by the children. Could it be that the design of traditional play equipment is inappropriate for the natural play behavior of children?

What are the alternatives? Should we redesign the playground or the child? We should not change the natural play of children, but we can and should redesign the playground. While play equipment should be as varied and innovative as the children who will use it, for the designer or purchaser of play equipment there is now sufficient information to propose the following basic principles of design.

PRINCIPLES OF DESIGN

Be Accessible to All Children

Play spaces should be located in those places in the community where children naturally play. Within those areas selected for play, the equipment should be accessible to all children. Accessibility means that the equipment is both easy to get to and, once on the equipment, is easy for a child to play on independently and safely. The equipment must accommodate young children who are barely walking as well as the young developing children who are not yet sure of their movements. There must also be some physical challenges in the play environment which will provide the higher performing child with the opportunity to develop additional play capabilities. There are also those children who because of physical or mental impairments do not demonstrate those performance levels in keeping with their chronological age. Thus, children of differing ages, physical size, and abilities have special needs which must be accommodated in the design of the play center. Gently sloping ramps, stairs with handrails, and platforms of gradually ascending heights are a few of the built-in enablers which provide for easier accessibility for all children.

Public Law 94-142, the Education for the Handicapped Act, mandates accessibility for handicapped students in both academic and nonacademic settings. The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 further requires accessibility for handicapped persons to all public facilities.

Provide Safe Distance Between Levels

Children enjoy the challenge of climbing to the top of the hill or to the highest point on the play equipment. However, three-fourths of all the playground injuries reported by the U.S. Consumer Product Safety Commission for 1974 were caused by falls to the ground or to other equipment. Providing a softer landing surface will reduce the seriousness of the injury sustained by the child in a fall. However, in addition, the design of the play equipment must preclude any possibility of a child falling from a high level.

While relatively high levels to climb up to or slide down from need to be a part of the overall design, each level adjacent to the next highest level should be a reasonably safe distance. A safe distance between levels is one in which each child is able to jump purposely or fall accidently to the next level without sustaining a serious injury. For preschool age children, a distance of 18 to 24 inches between levels is reasonable. This multi-level design principle not only contributes to safety, but greatly enhances accessibility to the higher levels of the play apparatus.

Incorporate a Variety of Inclines for Children to Move at Their Own Level of Ability

Inclines should range from gently sloping angles to angles of not more than 45 degrees. There should be a variety of inclines of increasing challenges which will invite children to crawl, climb, run, and/or slide according to the present level of ability of each child. Ramps with handrails, flat inclines, stairs, and wide climbing nets are a few of the types of inclines which give children a choice in moving up to and down from various levels on the play equipment. When an incline platform with a smooth surface is placed on an angle it becomes a sliding surface. Flat slides should be wide to accommodate sliding by more than one child at a time and should be placed at an appropriate angle which allows the child to control his/her rate of descent. In addition to side runners on the sliding surface, there should be horizontal platforms next to the slide to minimize the distance of a possible fall. Full and half-circle tube slides provide an added degree of safety and provide a different sliding experience for children.

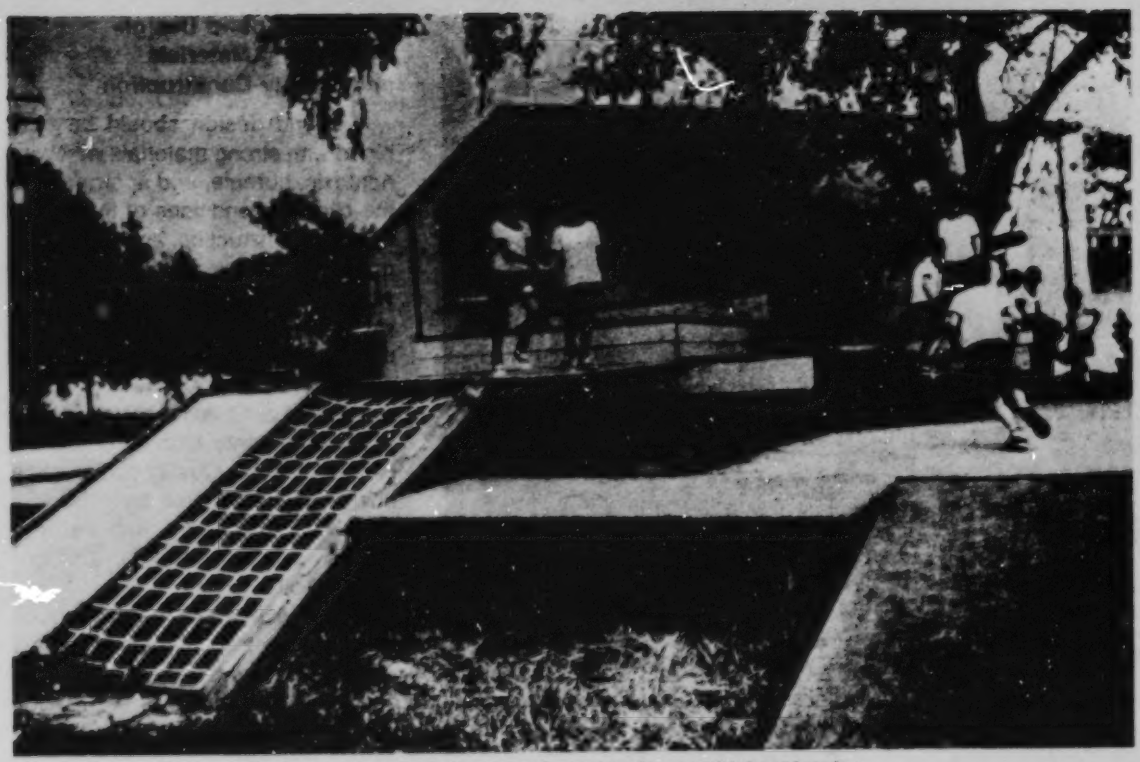
Provide Partially-Closed Spaces Through Which Children Can Safely Move

Children enjoy playing in partially-enclosed spaces, but these spaces must be easy to get into and out of safely. This private space should be shaded and should encourage quiet imaginative play and role playing as a part of the total play experience. These partially-closed play spaces can easily serve as connecting links between play areas.

The overall design of the play apparatus should be abstract so that the creativity of the child can make it into many imagined places. It is more difficult to think of a piece of equipment as being anything else if it is constructed in the shape of a fire engine or train.

Be Complex and Stimulating

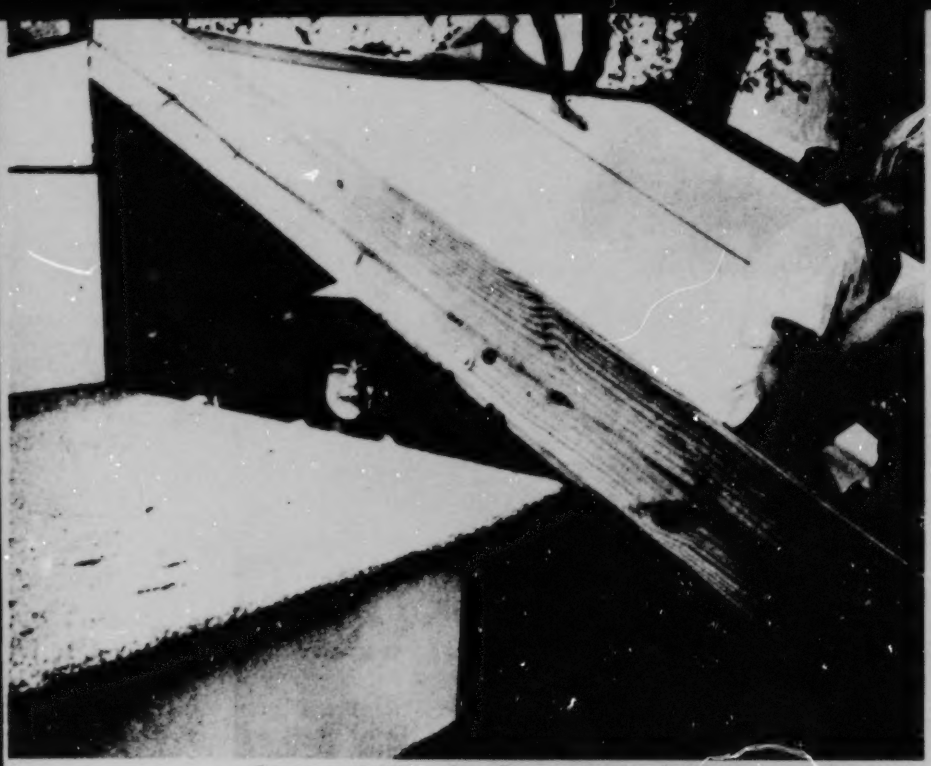
The best assessment of any play equipment would be the amount and quality of continued play freely engaged in by the children for whom it was designed. It is reasonable to assume that a play environment with a high degree of complexity would result in a greater amount of use by children for play than a simple play environment. Variations in color, texture, and type of material are easily observable complexity variables; however, perhaps the most important contribution to complexity is the variation in the size and shape of the physical structure. A design which challenges the child to process new sensory information with every movement and to respond appropriately to maintain or to develop mastery over the environment may well provide the most interest and challenge for the child. Ideally, if modular components of the play center can be appropriately rearranged a new play



Play areas should be designed so that each level is adjacent to the next highest level at a reasonably safe distance. This multi-level design principle greatly enhances accessibility to higher levels of the play apparatus, as shown in this play center at the Morningstar School, Tampa, Florida, which invites children to run, jump, leap, slide, and climb gradually up to heights of six feet.

Special equipment and emphasis on accessibility are important considerations in play areas to be used by handicapped children. A ramp with handrails and a climbing net with vinyl slide are popular play areas at the United Cerebral Palsy of Tampa Play Center, below.

photos: Louis Bowers



Strong materials and quality construction, interconnected play areas, and wide sliding surface with side runners are good principles of design all evidenced here at the Morningstar School of Tampa, Florida

environment can periodically be created.

Nicholson's theory of loose parts (1971) stresses the importance of having movable parts within the play environment which can be manipulated by children. Soft, colorful, lightweight objects of different shapes and texture as well as sand and water for pouring and shaping all add complexity to the play experience.

Bowers (1977) reports that when large foam blocks and large, soft playground balls were introduced to a play center for preschool handicapped children after thirty one-half hour periods of unstructured play there was a substantial increase in the recorded play behavior of the children. There was an increase in the play behaviors involving movements on the equipment in the play center as well as manipulative activities with the blocks and balls.

Use Interconnected Play Areas to Produce Higher Levels of Continuous Play

There should be alternate avenues to be traveled between areas of play within the center which are interconnected to provide for easy movement throughout the entire play center. An overview of the play center design would show easy access throughout by means of pathways, ramps, climbing nets, stairs, inclines, or slides which interconnect. This unified concept of play has been investigated by Shaw (1976) in the child's Creative Learning Space Project; he reports that decreased overall use patterns and decreased total use of the unified play space resulted when the play modules were separated. By unifying or interlocking the play elements within the unified play space overall complexity is increased.

The best test of play equipment is the amount and quality of continued play, freely engaged in by the children for whom it was designed.

Combine Sound Design with Strong Materials and Quality Construction

A sound design should be combined with strong materials which are nontoxic, durable, and appropriate to the climatic conditions of the region. Quality construction and continuing maintenance are necessary for providing an enjoyable and safe play environment. A play center designed and constructed to withstand the dynamic forces generated by the active play of children must also be able to accommodate use by older children and adults. Quality construction, however, should also be evident in the elimination of sharp corners, splinters, small openings, and protruding bolts.

A well-designed play center should utilize and enhance the natural environment surrounding it, should be accessible to all children, and should increase both the amounts, variety, and safety of play opportunities for children. The current trend in the playground equipment industry away from traditional pieces of play equipment to units of equipment linked together is a positive sign. The design and research efforts of a number of individual designers may be the beginning of the elevation of the design of play equipment to a science. The importance of developmental play, consideration of the ways in which children naturally play, and a concern for the special needs of children because of their young age, lack of development, or physical impairments should form the bases of the new science of playground design.

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Employee Recreation
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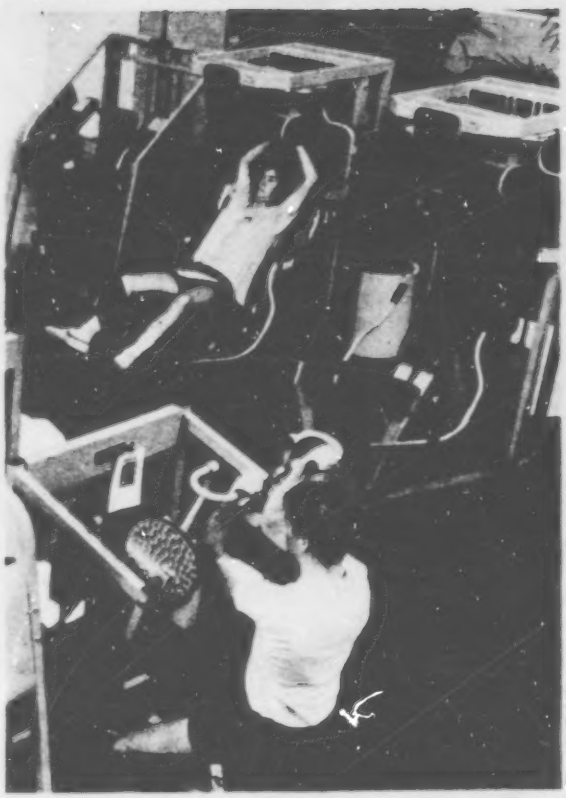

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Why Employee Recreation?

An Introduction

Gerald S. Fain
Editor

This issue represents a unique blending of interests. From our initial conceptualization we sought to open discussion and provoke the imagination. Rather than focusing on exercise, recreation, or health promotion programs in the workplace alone, we have tried to capture this emerging phenomenon in its totality. Yet as we reviewed manuscripts for this issue the great divergence in the field of practice became evident. Few generalities can be drawn with respect to personnel practices, program rationales, or connectedness to any particular academic discipline. Using "Employee Recreation" to capture these diverse phenomena was an expedient which may be of some concern to those in related fields of inquiry and practice who do not identify with this term. Perhaps through field study and scholarly debate, we may arrive in the near future at a more satisfactory means of identifying the field.

A Growing Phenomena

That the business world is profit oriented is self-evident. Innovations affecting workers' productivity have always been of interest to management.

Program expenses become a prudent investment if it can be "proven" that an exercise program decreases the number of sick days taken or the likelihood of losing a valued employee due to preventable illness (e.g. heart attack or stroke).

There is also evidence that corporations with sound business practices have invested substantially in programs with less obvious cost benefit ratios. The holiday program, swimming pool, and golf course have long been considered important tools with which to build morale, recruit personnel competitively, and enhance the corporate image.

Moreover, an increasing number of employers are moving to an enlightened and comprehensive approach which enhances life quality of the employee and his/her family. "State-of-the-art" corporate programs now offer sports, recreation, and primary prevention programs. Even small firms without facilities are contracting with neighborhood golf, tennis, and health clubs to give employee access to programs at reduced or no cost.

Yet despite these easily identifiable business practices, similiarities among programs across industry are difficult to identify. While one corporation may emphasize exercise and primary prevention, another may be known for tennis

and golf. Thus, little knowledge generated by these programs can be generalized. Evaluative data has not been uniformly reported or available. Corporations tend to keep these kinds of data confidential.

Nevertheless, several factors identified in the literature begin to explain why these programs continue to grow. . . .(1) *Cost benefit.* Employers have long recognized that healthy employees cost less. Absenteeism due to sickness is expensive, and employers are becoming convinced that sick days can be reduced by encouraging good health. Employers also are concerned when employees are unhappy, as malcontented employees are more prone to undermine the goals of the organization. Companies strive to promote and protect a worker-centered and benevolent image. (2) *Performance Requirements.* Performance requirements, those standards of practice which ordinarily relate to production of goods, are now being extended into the area of personnel. Lionel H. Olmer, Under Secretary of Commerce for International Trade, in an interview in the New York *Times*, June 23, 1981, spoke about performance requirements in an enlightened context:

> It is very difficult for a United States supplier of telecommunications equipment to go to Japan and say: "I build a fine product; try it." They want to see how you built it, and they want to test it at every step of the manufacturing process. They also want to know the extent to which you provided a happy home and recreational activities for your employees.

(3) *Worker Expectation.* Just as the number of educated adults continues to increase, so too does their knowledgeable concern for health and happiness. Advances in epidemiological study, complemented by laboratory medical science, have made people concerned about eliminating health risk. The 1979 report, *Healthy People: The Surgeon General's Report on Health Promotion and Disease Prevention* exemplifies this trend. In addition, Taylor identifies eight areas in which medical scientists believe opportunities for increased physical and emotional health can be provided:

1. Nutrition
2. Weight control
3. Exercise
4. Appropriate use of alcohol
5. Avoidance of tobacco
6. Appropriate use of drugs
7. Rest and sleep
8. Stress management.[4]

People today want not only to be employed, but to be employed in health-supporting environments which include no smoking areas, nutritious cafeteria menus, and time and places for exercise, and the purging of toxic agents.

A Few Words of Caution

In the next twenty years, as we evolve toward a more health and leisure-centered society, we should not be surprised to find the workplace become a major provider of health, recreation and fitness.

This special issue documents a sufficient number of cases to substantiate this phenomenon. More companies do have programs and the programs do seem to be better than at any other time. By using advanced knowledge in medical science, health promotion, exercise physiology, and leisure, employers are becoming convinced that investments in these programs are justifiable. However, one point of caution needs to be made. The belief that a strong relationship exists between university-based professional preparation and employment may be unfounded. Reviewing materials for inclusion in this issue, we found no data supporting the contention that a university graduate with a degree in health, leisure, recreation, physical education, or exercise physiology is more likely to be employed by corporations than anyone else. While some universities may have a good record of placing graduates, it would not be prudent to suggest that a degree in the field is a good predictor of employment. Individuals with a variety of backgrounds are competing for the same jobs. There is insufficient evidence to suggest that a graduate of a business or liberal arts program, is any less desirable than a graduate in leisure studies, recreation, or physical education.

This situation is apparently compounded by the entrepreneur. Numerous firms specialize in health promotion, physical fitness, and recreation in the workplace. They vary in professional competence and philosophy, often claiming to be uniquely qualified to provide comprehensive services on a contractual basis. Such firms can propose, conduct, and evaluate a vast array of programs. The free market does not require that the private entrepreneur demonstrate a university education as a criterion for competence. In some cases this undermines the seriousness of other professionals who wish to establish the effectiveness of their contributions to the workplace.

Issues pertaining to lifestyle, coercion, and confidentiality of employee data will focus increasing attention on professional ethics. Who will have access to information and for what purpose? Is it "right" for the employer to reward workers for health-supporting behaviors? Should a person's value to the corporation be partially determined by health status or lifestyle preferences? Daniel I. Wikler cautions that the pressures to contain costs of health care are so great that the government ". . . may propel life-style reform to a central place in health planning before the necessary scientific and policy thinking has taken place."[5] Therefore, the challenges to the professional committed to responsible action takes on specific direction. Choosing between being a loyal employee and behaving in morally responsible ways will cause the practitioner to choose between the rights of the individual and the power influence of the employer.

This issue represents, perhaps better than most, the vitality that exists when the interests of American Alliance professions are joined. Perhaps the demands of the workplace will stimulate consideration of ways these fields can complement each other's interests not previously discovered.

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Rustproofing People

Corporate Recreation Programs in Perspective

Michael L. Teague
Kenneth E. Mobily

Corporate wellness programs may be described as a rustproofing system that preserves the employee against a "rat race" life filled with appointments, meetings, higher productivity targets and other morning to night stressors. Although it is generally thought that wellness programs are welcomed in corporate circles, it is surprising how little we know about the recreation components of this phenomenon. To uncover information on recreation's role in corporate wellness programs, we met with a legendary informant—"Deep Throat." By interviewing "Deep Throat" (DT) we discovered the degree to which corporations are committed to wellness recreation programs and cautiously forecasted future commitment.

Q It would seem that American corporations and industry should try anything and everything currently being marketed as wellness/prevention; particularly recreation programs.

DT Wellness recreation programs are increasingly part of the American culture and have earned support from many major corporations. In principle, if employee illnesses were to be prevented, detected earlier, and treated wisely before they progress into chronic conditions, less would be paid out in employee health benefits. It turns out, however, that the bulk of corporate wellness programs have concentrated on executives' vulnerability to heart attacks. The corporate wellness "boom," particularly its recreation components, is not quite the boom that many people have been led to believe.[1]

Q Why are corporate wellness programs principally directed toward the managerial level?

DT The corporate managerial level, especially the top few executives, are the soul of the corporation. A leading personnel director for a major American corporation, in an interview for *Harvard Business Review*, made this point quite vivid. He estimated that the cost of a heart attack ranges from three times an executive's annual salary to millions, depending on the illness severity and that executive's role in the corporate structure.

Q We've all heard about the harried executive. But, from what I know, the image of the *driven* executive—overstressed and unable to relax, miserable in spite of his/her power, money and status—is the myth!

DT You're right! Several studies have indicated that executives not only have fewer heart attacks than blue-collar workers, but their mortality rate ranges from 30% to 10% lower than that of the general population. Boroson[2], in a survey of 2,000 executives in New York City, concluded that the majority of executives, (87%) cope well with their jobs, have better than average health habits, and are dismayed by the image of the harried executive.

Q Why are corporations so willing to subsidize preventive measures for a reasonably healthy group among their workers?

DT Are you suggesting a sinister plot? I remind you that there is no provision in the federal income tax law which prevents the corporate employer from discriminating in favor of, and limiting the health and medical care benefits to the managerial level.

Q All right. Let me present a scenario for you. It appears that by focusing on heart disease as the real threat to workers' health and by promoting the relatively low-cost strategies required to foster wellness care in this area, corporations direct attention away from those diseases that claim as many, if not more, lives but affect "less valued" workers. Moreover, these ignored diseases of "less valued" workers are expensive to alleviate.

DT Let me expand your scenario a bit. Workmen's Compensation for low back pain costs employers approximately $250 million annually. A Pacific Mutual Life study estimated an annual $30 million cost due to poor nutrition. Alcoholic employees experience twice the rate of absenteeism than other employees. According to the National Interagency Council on Smoking and Health, the average one-pack-per-day smoker may cost his/her employer more than $600 per year in otherwise avoidable costs.[3] I could go on but the point is clear.

Q How can corporations get away with such a "red herring" strategy?

DT It's mathematical gymnastics played at a very sophisticated level. For example, OSHA estimated that 100,000 workers die each year and three or four times that number are disabled as a result of occupational diseases (e.g., industrial accidents). Rather than accepting these statistics, corporations muddy the waters by creating a morass of reports that dispute unhealthy work environment claims. In a declining economy, corporations can bail out by arguing that excessive regulations harm productivity. Risk accounting strategies, employed under a cost-benefit analysis, simply conclude that life is inescapably risky and that some risks (e.g., heart attacks) are just part of the territory and must be placed in proper perspective. But, to make sure that one does not get the idea that corporations are not concerned, wellness recreation programs are directed toward the penthouse level. After all, the harried executive is not a myth to the general public.

Q But, aren't corporate profits affected by more than just the growth of social wage and the threat of federal regulatory control on such things as pollution and safety standards? For example, Hedges contends that American workers reported that illness and injury kept them off the job twice as often as personal and civic responsibilities.[4] From 1973 to 1976 illness and injury accounted for about three-fourths of all hours lost in manufacturing. It seems to me that if wellness recreation programs can affect corporate productivity, then such programs will begin to flourish among even the lower corporate echelon.

DT Theoretically, it has been argued that wellness recreation programs can significantly affect cor-

porate productivity. Americans live on a diet of TV, video games, swivel chairs, computer terminals, and elevators. The American worker is not only basically unfit but has not found constructive ways to work off tension. The culprits are suicidal lifestyles characterized by inactivity and consumption of gargantuan quantities of calories.

Q You said theoretical. Hasn't this claim by wellness "gurus" been empirically supported?

DT To tell the truth, no. Anecdotal observations, intuition, speculation and wishful thinking are the legacy of recreation and wellness programs. As is the case with many well-advertised constructs, supposition and agreement are no substitutes for scientific and empirical validation. I do sincerely wish there was an empirical leg for the industrial recreation/productivity relationship to stand on, but there is not.

Q Hold on! The wellness director at my company has given me references for several widely quoted articles that empirically support the relationship between recreation and exercise and a variety of productivity variables.

DT I've read many of those articles. Let's start with measuring productivity. Did you know that some studies have used superintendent and foreman ratings of work performance? For instance, Creed argued that superintendent's ratings of productivity were valid measures of productivity because the superintendent awarded raises based on judgment.[5]

Q What's wrong with that?

DT Do you not consider other things when you give your executives raises? Are not experience, tenure, loyalty, friendship, cordiality and the like influential in your decisions about raises? And can you honestly say that these and other variables you consider in giving raises always or even sometimes increase productivity?

Q So, the productivity measure is tentative; is not Creed's work at least encouraging?

DT To some extent, yes. But there is another aspect of his study that bothers me. The way he set up his research design, using employer ratings (best vs. worst) as the "treatment" variable, suggests that one's work rating causes increased or decreased recreation participation. Of course, this notion is as absurd as arguing that recreation causes increased productivity. Furthermore, Hunt and Brooks found significant and positive correlations between certain dimensions of work and leisure, e.g., status, social relationships, freedom.[6] Taken together, the findings of Creed, and Hunt and Brooks only indicate that one who is happy and active at work is also happy and active at play.

Q But what about Finney's study[7] and the work of Groves, et al.[8] and Anderson[9]? Do not all these studies replicate Creed's original supposition such that the evidence is now overwhelming?

DT Have they? Anderson's work was basically a review of master's theses. Of course there is nothing wrong with that, but the measure of productivity reported were again subjective, not objective. Anderson reported one study which found that employees in an active recreation participation group were rated "more desirable" than those in a nonparticipant group. However, Anderson's study also found *no* significant differences between the same two groups on what I consider to be more objective measures of productivity: absenteeism, job tenure, and safety records. In a second study attempting to link recreation activity with safety records, Anderson again reported no significant association.

A final "productivity" study reported by Anderson is reminiscent of the more recent Groves study. Anderson reported that surveyed executives cite values engendered by employee recreations. In examining the percentages, however, one notes that the value most often mentioned (improved morale) only received support from about 30% of the respondents, hardly a landslide. Furthermore, even though many other values were reported (without accompanying percentages), one must assume that these values were cited by somewhat fewer than 30% of executives and more probably substantially less than 30%. By comparison, Groves and his associates surveyed active and inactive employees. Their findings were somewhat similar to Anderson's earlier report, with active employees generally viewing the program as more beneficial than inactive employees.

Finney's work, by contrast, was well-conceived. He found no noticeable difference in productivity between a control group (receiving just rest periods between seven trials at an experimentally boring task) and a treatment group (receiving recreation breaks between the same seven trials). The treatment group's improvement was very linear, whereas the control group showed a performance decrement on trial four and reached a performance plateau by trial six. Finney believed the treatment group's consistency indicated superior performance.

Finney's weaknesses are related mainly to his interpretation of the results. The author reports that the control group violated their rest period roles by leaving their seats and engaging in horseplay during the rest period following work period four. The fact that the subjects are penalized for leaving their seats (units of their production were subtracted) certainly detracted from the linearity of the control group's productivity. Deleting productivity, from a business point of view, does not make good fiscal sense even if employees are misbehaving. Based upon the foregoing assumptions, if the control group was not penalized, their productivity may have been significantly better. Moreover, the linear improvement in both group's productivity was probably related more to mastery of the "jobs." Finney essentially confounded his findings with task learning.

Another external validity problem is related to Finney's unrealistic operationalization of work (5 minutes) and rest periods (10 minutes). Quite simply, it is highly improbable that one would find rest periods twice as long as work periods in a realistic industrial situation. Perhaps he would have seen his recreation group perform significantly better than the control group had he assured that his subjects were really bored by assigning longer work periods more representative of a true work situation. But he did not, and the real bottom line, the one that you businessmen are so fond of, is that the control group's total productivity was slightly superior to the total productivity of the group receiving a recreation interlude, even after the control group was penalized for their horseplay.

Q But what about absenteeism? It's a major problem at our plant? Is there any hope there?

DT Certainly there is hope. Erwin showed a 23% decrease in absenteeism after an employee recreation program was instituted.[10] Unfortunately, Erwin's 23% decrease was in nonpaid absenteeism, that is absenteeism beyond employer paid sick days. Recall also that

Anderson reported a study in which recreation had no effect on absenteeism, and the Groves survey indicated that not one subject among active and inactive employees thought recreation made any difference in absenteeism.

Q Well, I am going to continue industrial recreation and wellness at my plant as a perquisite for my executives. That's something to attract and keep my most valued employees.

DT I hope you're right. Regrettably, Carter and Wanzel[11] found that a company recreation program was *not* thought to be an important factor in remaining with a parent company by two-thirds of their respondents. Don't get the idea that I'm not supportive of wellness recreation programs. I merely noted that a declining economy has also meant a declining growth in corporate wellness programs. A lot of workers, unions, and corporate managers are *not* sold on wellness. Unless it can be clearly established that wellness recreation programs improve productivity, such programs will continue to be viewed as company perks or country clubs.

Q If that's the case, how can wellness advocates prove that recreation programs are vital to corporate productivity?

DT The first step is to re-evaluate the conceptual framework for studying the relationship between recreation programs and productivity. Three major revisions should be included. First, recreation programs mediate physiological and psychological subsystems which, in turn, affect productivity. For example, if you are to prove that aerobic fitness programs increase productivity, you must first establish that you have significantly improved the employee's physiological subsystems (e.g., cardiovascular reserve).

This leads to my second point. Altering productivity without improving physical fitness suggests that psychological benefits of recreation/exercise have occurred. Unfortunately, the psychological benefits of wellness recreation programs, as they relate to productivity, have not received a lot of attention. Establishing an empirical relationship between the psychological benefits of exercise and productivity would have a dramatic impact on the design of wellness recreation programs.

Third, and my final point, is that productivity is a complicated construct requiring a variety of measuring variables. To date, only absenteeism and morale (e.g., job satisfaction) have received much attention. Turnover, health insurance premiums, tort claims, and restricted activity are other variables worthy of exploration.

Q I'm wondering if there is any reason to be optimistic about potential growth in corporate recreation programs.

DT Actually, two recent developments have led me to be very enthusiastic about corporate recreation programs. First, the Washington Business Group in Health (WBGH) has created a Wellness Evaluation Working Group. This group comprises 18 of the nation's largest employers. The participating employers have embarked on a three-year agenda for studying cardiovascular risk education programs; designing and using common evaluation instruments; and constructing cross-comparison program methods. I would assume that such a professional group will provide stronger empirical studies on corporate recreation and productivity.

Secondly, despite a sagging economy, the timing is right for corporate wellness and recreation programs. Corporations are, of course, interested in productivity and a reduction in health insurance premiums cannot help but mean higher profits. But, there is much more to this issue. Although corporations may not appear to be interested in wellness programs during a "sagging" economy, health insurance companies are. Until the recent financial pinch, insurers of health had very little to worry about other than their competition between companies and regulation by the government. Today, the financial squeeze resulting from escalating health costs has led to a crisis in credibility. Insurers of health, doctors, and insurance companies are no longer infallible.[12] Insurance companies are realizing that the practice of focusing on the supply side of health (i.e., medical facilities), to the exclusion of the demand side of chronic illnesses caused by an aging population and poor lifestyle practices, is no longer effective. To break the cycle of spiraling health costs, prevention will be necessary.

Personally, I think this new interest in wellness by insurance companies will be a stronger impetus for wellness recreation programs than attempts to link wellness with productivity. Although it is acknowledged that environmental or occupational factors may be responsible for a large percentage of chronic diseases, pragmatism is the reason cited to focus on lifestyle changes.

Thus, the shifting of responsibility for health away from the corporate doorstep, coupled with the need for health insurance companies to regain credibility, lead me to predict a boom for corporate recreation programs, as cost-sharing insurance plans are devised to emphasize lifestyle patterns. Thus, wellness recreation programs are fueled by the growing understanding between lifestyle impacts on physiological and psychological subsystems and the subsequent impact on chronic diseases. These reduced medical costs may be multiplied many times by the subsequent impact on absenteeism, trips to the doctor, tort claims, morale, turnover and insurance premiums—all measures of productivity. Wellness recreation programs may then become attractive for all corporate employees: not just the select penthouse level.

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Recreation Programming as Personal Growth

A Philosophy

David R. Chase

"Freedom of choice is an illusion." Written in bold letters on the blackboard of the meeting room, these words challenged my sense of well-being. I felt small as the phrase grew within me. Like Alice in Wonderland, I wanted to regain my size. My return to normal size was not, I must say with a bit of longing, preceded by adventures in Wonderland. Rather, my normal stature returned when I accepted the possible truth—and the consequences—of the statement. "Freedom of choice may be an illusion, but I choose to live that illusion."

Within this personal anecdote are several concepts and processes important to a philosophical base for recreation programs. This brief essay will develop these ideas in the context of employee recreation programs. It will propose a philosophy of personal growth based on recognizing the illusory boundaries between work and leisure and will discuss compatible recreation programming. A sketch of some major developments in employer-employee relations and the accompanying approaches to employee recreation will serve as a background.

Employer-Employee Relations

In general, 19th century American factory life can be described as an era of sweat shops and robber barons. During the same period the idea of recreation as time to recover from the effects of work developed. Entrepreneurs were eager for the worker to return on Monday mornings, refreshed, ready to put in a good week's work. The oppressive nature of factory work, the difficulties of urban life, and the commercial entertainment that served as recreation did not produce fresh, eager workers. In fact, the rather dismal life circumstances of many city dwellers stimulated the social welfare movement of the late 19th century, an aspect which was the emphasis on wholesome recreation for children and, tangentially, the need for adult recreation during nonwork time.

Management was being influenced by Fredrick Winslow Taylor's ideas of scientific management. Management's tendency to view the worker as a replaceable element of the production process prompted almost no concern for humanism in the organization.

According to Howard and Crompton's excellent review of management thought, not until the human relations movement starting about 1930, was there an awareness of the importance of the human factor in the organization.[1] Recognizing the importance of the informal work group and acknowledging that workers are motivated not only by economic rewards, but also by feelings of job satisfaction and competence led to company-sponsored recreation programs.

By the late 1950s a contemporary management approach based on the human relations movement and upon the cognitive social psychology of Kurt Lewin and Abraham Maslow emerged.[1] The prominent work of McGregor, Argyris and Herzberg suggested a truly humanistic approach to organizational behavior. The individual worker was seen as a participant in organizational planning and workers were assumed to be seeking responsibility and even self-actualization. However, when placed in the context of bruising economic realities following the recession of 1973, the contemporary management strategies such as theory Y and job enrichment gave way to the more results-oriented approach of management by objectives.

Concurrently with the growth of employee recreation, what is now known as The National Employee Services and Recreation Association developed. Its approximately 2,500 members lead programs in sports and travel as well as offering services such as employee stores, educational opportunities, fitness and health clubs, and community service projects.[2] The fortunes of employee services, like behaviorist approaches to management, are subject to the

economic climate of corporate life. Like public recreation programs, they are one of the first targets for funding cutbacks during economic downturns.

Placing employee recreation services against the background of management strategies, reveals that contemporary management strategies recognize that employee well-being is important to organizational success. Observers disagree about how employee well-being can be best facilitated. Is it necessary for companies to offer recreation opportunities, services that are often viewed as separate from the work experience? Or, can individual well-being be best enhanced by altering the work setting and employer-employee relationships? Humanistic approaches to management and employee services tend to flourish during economic prosperity and wither during economically depressed times. What does this say about humanism, reality, and even about our current philosophical base for recreation programming?

The key question is why is there a move toward humanism during economic prosperity but a movement away in the face of the "economic realities" of hard times? Humanism here refers to concern for the development of human potential. According to Maslow, movement toward the higher-level needs like self-actualization occurs only as lower level physiological and security needs are satisfied.[3] But once satisfied, lower level needs do not necessarily remain so. As environmental conditions change lower level needs may become potent motivators, demanding satisfaction. Thus, it would seem that our sense of well-being depends on the environment, that part of existence we believe is not part of what we call our true selves.

It is easy to see why many accept as fact the opening statement of this paper: "Freedom of choice is an illusion." We feel there is little choice in how to respond to the vagaries of the environment; we continually fear physiological problems, unemployment, and social rejection. These are the battles we choose although we would certainly deny any part in the choosing. Csikszentmihalyi points out how we arrive at this position when he states:

> This process is well described in the paradoxical syllogism of Berger and Luckmann (1967:61): "Society is a human product. Society is an objective reality. Man is a social product." In other words, patterns of culture are created by human action, but once they are established, we confront them as if they represented an external force, and we let our actions be determined by them.[4]

It seems we divide the world into many parts, good and evil, beautiful and ugly, life and death, and then we seek to see ourselves as only good, beautiful and alive. Evil, ugliness, and death are not accepted as part of the core self. They are repressed and projected to form part of the unconscious or what psychologists refer to as the shadow. It is formed from the repressed and projected half of a particular duality that is accepted as part of the self. Thus, we create a boundary within our psyche between the accepted self and the shadow self. This maneuvering enables us to get rid of the uncomfortable aspects of ourselves, to bury them. This strategy seldom works. The shadow is always there, always ready to do battle.

Both Wheelis[5] and Wilber[6] show how we can allow our true selves to encompass ever smaller parts of existence. We can truly feel smaller. Life can become an uphill battle in which we protect what safety and security we have, striking out violently against a threatening environment. This portrayal may sound negative and appear to be leading to the helpless conclusion, "that's life." But it is actually the "that's life" feeling that this essay is intended to dispel. Fortunately, there are other ways to view life based on established philosophical, psychological, and spiritual writings.

Consider the personal anecdote at the beginning. Faced with the uncomfortable possibility that there is no freedom of choice, I began to deny that possibility and project that possibility as not part of me. In a sense I disowned it, made it part of my shadow. As a result I felt smaller and, in fact, what I claimed as part of myself was smaller. It was only when I stopped seeing freedom of choice and lack of freedom of choice as separate that I began to accept both as aspects of myself. Acceptance came as the result of seeing the illusory nature of the boundary between freedom and nonfreedom. I was no longer compelled to know nonfreedom as other than myself, that is, as my shadow. Accepting a disliked or uncomfortable aspect of any duality as part of ourselves means taking responsibility for that aspect. To take responsibility is often a frightening step. But, when we consider the alternative of spending a lifetime battling these same aspects as part of our shadow, we may begin to grasp the reasonableness of taking responsibility.

The reward for dissolving boundaries, accepting dualities as part of ourselves, and taking responsibility is a feeling of well-being and the energy to act within the flow of life. Having taken the initial steps I was free to act on the issue of freedom of choice and make a decision that would return my feeling of well-being, what I have referred to as my return to size. This decision came in the form of my final paradoxical statement: "Freedom of choice may be an illusion but I choose to live that illusion." This statement means that I do not recognize a boundary between freedom of choice and lack of freedom of choice. I recognize that both elements are operative, are a part of my core self, and hence are a friendly prod for my actions.

To return to the earlier question about moving toward humanism in prosperous times and falling back on security and physiological needs when economic realities hit, it is argued that this phenomena is the result of basing our movement toward self-actualization on external factors. That is, physiological needs are met when there is food, water, and sex. Shelter and nonarbitrary action by others meet security needs, and positive feedback by others can meet social needs. When these factors that have come to be seen as not ourselves, external to us, change, we can feel threatened and recoil from the journey toward self-actualization.

Drawing upon the idea of enlarging the self through seeing the illusion of boundaries between dualities, it is possible to move toward self-actualization without extreme dependence on environmental changes (an excellent discussion of these ideas is presented by Wilber.[7]) Spangler, the insightful New Age visionary and philosopher, nicely sums up these ideas and indicates their connection to the spiritual realm in stating that "the whole meaning of the New Age is that man takes a transition in consciousness from relying upon external authority to being centered and relying upon internal attunement with his world and with his soul, with his divine nature."[8] A wide acceptance of the philosophy proposed in this essay could usher in the long awaited and often heralded "New Age."

Recreation Programming as Personal Growth

The first application of a personal growth philosophy would be to develop an awareness of the lack of a boundary

between work and leisure. Once personal growth strategies are considered appropriate to both what is now called *work* and what is now called *leisure*, many employee recreation issues will greatly stabilize. Employees who have moved away from external orientations toward self-actualization are a company's most valuable resource. They are capable of positive, creative responses in times of financial crisis. They do not feel impelled to strike out in fear as some of the external pleasures of the lower level *need bands* diminish. This suggests company goals should include personal growth of employees in both company-facilitated leisure programs and in on-the-job settings.

How can this personal growth philosophy be applied to recreation programming in a holistic work-leisure setting? The holistically oriented programming approaches suggested by Edginton[9] and McDowell[10] are a beginning. Both authors recognize the importance of programming for personal growth through participatory leisure service organizations. In this approach the programmer uses an equality-oriented, participant-centered interactive process to determine programming alternatives and strategies. By facilitating participant growth, the programmer grows also. Programming becomes not only the managing of facilities, the selection of activities and face-to-face leadership, but rather the interactive process of human development in which facilities, activities and leadership are the attendant specifics. The outcome of this process is movement toward removing boundaries, a movement from what Reisman called other directedness to inner directedness.[11]

A major weakness of traditional programming is to be found neither in the specific activities nor the facilities. As both Murphy's *Golf in the Kingdom*[12] and Herrigel's *Zen and the Art of Archery*[13] indicate, the approach to an activity, not its specific structure, leads to self-fulfilling experiences. Thus, although meditation, yoga, new games, and holistic health programs are promoted as the activities for personal growth, there is no inherent rightness in their structure. Rather, it is the inherent process of personal growth through the dissolution of boundaries in these activities that facilitates self-development.

A major weakness of traditional programming is its attempt to satisfy participants' external and surface desires. Granted, the traditional programming is the result of many historical factors, particularly the external approach to social planning to improve living conditions, and a strong pragmatic philosophy. Nonetheless, the traditional approach encourages the creation of boundaries and the meeting of lower level needs through dependency on external conditions.

Changes in approaches to recreation programming are already underway. We will be able to integrate these changes into our own programming strategies only as we recognize our own boundaries to be illusions. Our growth will become the programs' growth, the programs' growth will become the participants' growth, and the participants' growth will become our own growth. This synergistic network is not confined to an artificially demarcated region known as leisure. No, it transcends the work-leisure boundary to become part of an holistic life. Recreation programming based on a philosophy of personal growth can expand the resource base of both company and society by drawing from the infinite well of human creativity.

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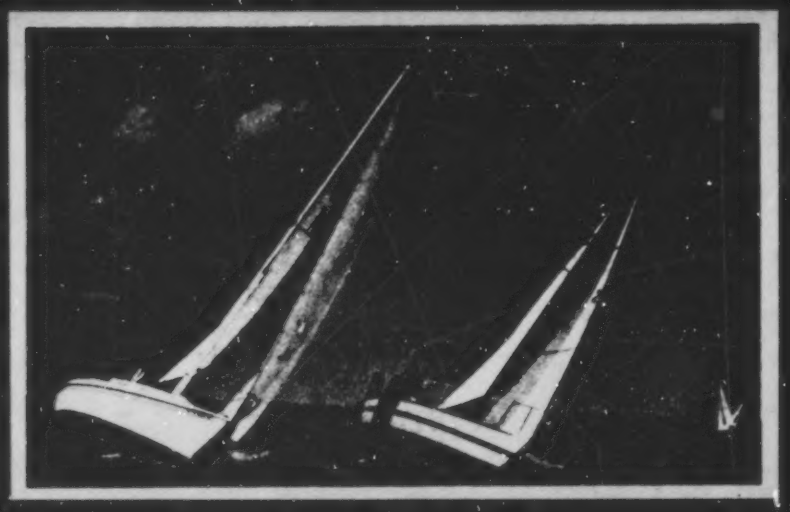
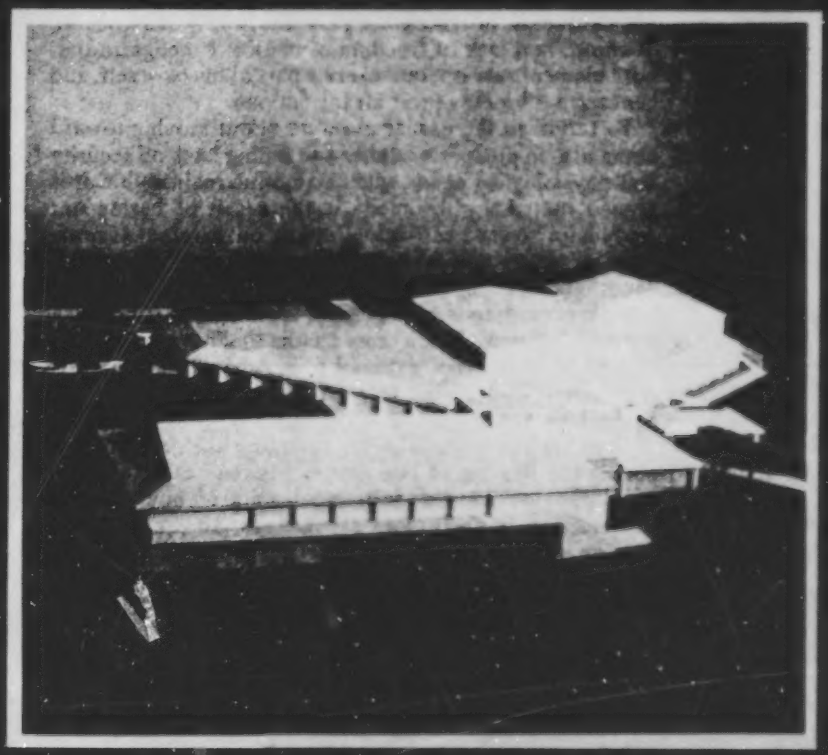


Tennessee Tires Challenge

The Face of Employee Recreation

Successful employee recreation programs often match needs and opportunities in uniquely inviting ways. Whether programs bring employees to the weightroom, computer terminal, or tennis court, employees leave satisfied, and corporations leave convinced that the fitness and recreation game is worth playing — and winning.



Assessing the Effectiveness of Employee Recreation/Fitness Programs

A Practical Approach

John C. Crossley Susan D. Hudson

Many corporations today have reached the limits of monetary rewards that they can give to their employees. At the same time, seeing their real income lessened through inflation and taxes, employees have sought increased fringe benefits contributions from their employers.[1]

The traditional list of fringe benefits has often included health insurance, retirement, vacations, and sick leave. Such items have been said to contribute toward employee job satisfaction, and in turn, to job productivity for the company.

More recently, employee recreation/fitness programs have been justified by employee recreation personnel on the grounds that they will improve the morale and/or fitness of the employee, and like the more traditional benefits, will be translated into savings and/or increased productivity for the corporation. Havlichek,[2] the National Employee Services and Recreation Association,[3] and Lau[4] have reported benefits of employee recreation/fitness programs: insurance discounts, decline in absenteeism, lower turnover, lower health care claims, increased job efficiency, improved communications, improved employee relations, and advantages in personnel recruitment.

It is not easy, however, for managers to assess these benefits. As Parkinson[5] reports, practical constraints (time and money) make it extremely difficult for most employee recreation managers to conduct sophisticated research. On the other hand, these managers need to analyze the effectiveness of employee recreation/fitness activities to justify their programs. What is needed, according to Parkinson, is a research approach consistent with available resources which provides the data necessary to determine whether the program achieves its objectives. In response to this need, a "practical approach" to assess the effectiveness of employee recreation/fitness programs was developed.[6] This approach was tested successfully with employee fitness programs in the Dallas/Fort Worth metroplex in 1982. Since then, the approach has been modified.

What *Practical* Means

The "practical approach" gathers information in a way comparable to the research design that Parkinson has labeled the "controlled comparison." Employee recreation/fitness program participants are compared to nonparticipating employees in health status, job performance, and perceptions of benefits. These data comparisons may be made at a specific point in time and again at a later point in time to see if changes have occurred as long as employee participant/nonparticipant status has not changed.

Two types of data are required for the practical approach. The first is used to construct an employee profile; the second, to measure employee perceptions of program benefits. An inventory of personal characteristics, health status measures, and job performance ratings of each individual constitutes the employee profile. The profile permits comparisons between participants and nonparticipants in health status and job performance. Data for the employee profile may include:

- *Personal characteristics*—age, sex, job classification, date of last health screening, recreation/fitness program participation status (participant, nonparticipant);
- *Health status measures*—body fat evaluation, aerobic capacity, flexibility, muscle strength, blood pressure, risk assessment, nutritional assessment; and
- *Job performance ratings*—absenteeism, accidents, health care claims, job productivity measures, and performance evaluation.

Ideally, objective data from the employee's personnel records should comprise the employee profile. However, some corporations are reluctant to divulge certain personal information due to legal constraints, even though the data is used internally. Similarly, health measure data may not

Figure 1.
Benefits of Participation in Employee Recreation/Fitness Programs

	No Benefit at All	Very Little Benefit	Some Benefit	Substantial Benefit	Very Important Benefit
Improves physical health	1	2	3	4	5
Helps person meet new friends	1	2	3	4	5
Provides chance to learn new skills	1	2	3	4	5
Breaks up daily routine	1	2	3	4	5
Breaks up routine at home	1	2	3	4	5
Develops self-confidence	1	2	3	4	5
Improves emotional health	1	2	3	4	5
Mentally shortens work day	1	2	3	4	5
Relieves tension	1	2	3	4	5
Helps manage time more effectively	1	2	3	4	5
Increases mental alertness	1	2	3	4	5
Develops competitive spirit	1	2	3	4	5
Helps improve leadership ability	1	2	3	4	5
Improves health education	1	2	3	4	5

Photos courtesy of Tarrant Chambers, Texas Association, Dallas, TX

be available, particularly in the small corporations without a medical staff or an exercise physiologist. If objective data is not available, the alternative is to solicit data from the employee in a nonthreatening way by including questions in the survey that ask the employee's perceptions of the benefits of the recreation/fitness program. Examples of alternative questions:

- How would you rate your weight? (check one):
  ___ overweight ___ proper weight ___ underweight
- This past year, about how many days did you miss work because of your own illness, accidents, or other physical conditions? (check one)
  ___ none ___ 1–3 ___ 4–6 ___ 7–9 ___ 10 or more.[7]

Substituting survey questions for objective data is less precise. However, this alternative may be the only practical, cost-effective option available to the program manager. Experience has shown that many employees respond openly when guarantees of confidentiality are given.

The second type of data that is gathered in the practical approach involves employee perceptions of the *effectiveness* of a recreation/fitness program. To gather this information, employees respond to a "perceptions of benefits" survey. This survey contains a list of possible benefits that may be achieved through an employee recreation/fitness program. Employees rate the relative value of each possible benefit on a 1–5 scale. The benefit scale used for this survey (Figure 1) modifies a scale developed and successfully used by Groves, Zadany, and Whitlock.[7] This method permits comparison of participants' and nonparticipants' perceptions.

Implementing the Practical Approach

Prior to collecting the information required for the practical approach, the employee recreation/fitness manager must (1) Establish management and employee support, and (2) Outline a research procedure to help ensure the success of this method.

Corporate support is usually necessary both to conduct and finance this research project, gain access to personnel health and job performance records, and to promote a high return of employee response on surveys. The objectives of this type of research should be documented prior to proposing the project to management. Management will want to know why this information is needed and what the information will be used for. They will also want to know the finance and time requirements.

The project also requires employee support. If there is an employee recreation council or other employee group such as a union, solicit their support. These groups can give insight into determining and best reaching the target population—by interview or mail.

Outline accepted research procedures prior to implementing this approach, reviewing sample selection, survey administration, acceptable return rate of surveys, and data processing. Texts by Babbie and others would be appropriate guides to help set up procedures.[8]

After selecting the sample, develop an employee profile for each subject. If possible, draw the data from existing sources such as personnel files and medical files. Where information is not available, construct the appropriate questions to include on the perception of benefits survey. Although the survey is treated confidentially, an employee number code should be used so that the surveys can be matched with the appropriate employee profiles. Through survey questions, ascertain the level of employee participation based upon logical norms for a particular company—nonparticipants, occasional participants (once a week or less), or active participants (twice a week or more).

Analyzing the Results

There are many possibilities for analyzing the information gathered in the practical approach. It is essential to examine the data in a way which will provide answers for the original research questions or objectives. In most cases this means determining if there is a difference between participants and nonparticipants of the employee recreation/fitness program. The logical comparisons for this question may be the health status measures and the job performance ratings. Do participants tend to have less absenteeism than nonparticipants? Is there a difference in job productivity measures?

A similar approach may be used to interpret the benefit scale responses. Do participants perceive that there are more benefits of an employee recreation/fitness program than nonparticipants? It may be that *both* groups perceive employee recreation/fitness programs to "improve physical health," but only the participants in the program appreciate a more subtle benefit such as "helps person meet new friends" or "learn new skills." Such findings would be consistent with Iso-Ahola's theories regarding recreation benefits.[9]

Display of such data is more effective in frequency or chi-square cross tabulation tables. Statistical tests such as analysis of variance, multiple regression, or chi-square can help determine if the difference between the participants and nonparticipants is significant.

If the company is interested in seeing if current participation in employee recreation/fitness programs is effective, then the use of one data set would be appropriate. However, if the company is interested in seeing changes over time, follow-up assessments are necessary. In this case some employees' participation status will have changed, and adjustments must be made for this change.

Conclusion

Employee recreation/fitness programs are a recent addition to the "fringe" benefits of many corporations. To justify its addition, many employee recreation managers need to assess whether such a program achieves its objectives for both the employee and employer. The "practical approach" presented in this paper enables the employee recreation manager to document these benefits. Data can be generated easily for comparison analysis without undue expenditure of time and financial resources.

Other types of research should also be undertaken in the area of employee recreation/fitness programs. Research topics which might be further explored include (1) examination of the relationships between company recreation/fitness programs and stress reduction of employees, (2) development of employee "recreation and leisure profiles." and (3) indepth analysis of employee perception of company fitness/recreation programs.

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Maximizing Employee Recreation Opportunities for the Disabled Worker

P. J. Powers

Catalyzed by recent legislative, technological, and cultural advances a unique individual is emerging into the corporate workplace: the disabled employee. Ironically, the term appears to be dichotomous with the production-oriented philosophy of traditional corporate environments. However, as employers around the country are realizing, the disabled employee constitutes a truly viable and productive element of any business schema if given the opportunity.

Sholtis stated that the aim of business and industry fitness/recreation programs—because of the substantial investment companies have made in their employees—is to get employees to adopt a healthy lifestyle.[1] This concept is equally applicable to disabled employees. Yet, disabled employees are often overlooked or restricted to a rather limited participatory involvement in such programs. In reality, for the disabled employee to assume and maintain a healthy lifestyle may require a more concerted effort than for nondisabled counterparts. As increasing numbers of disabled employees are placed in the workplace, chief executives will need to be more responsive to lifestyle issues for them.

The Minnesota Theory of Work Adjustment may provide a systematic framework for integrating the disabled employee into existing recreational program offerings (see Figure 1).[2] Its premise is to place the disabled employee in an appropriate occupational environment based on individual lifestyle needs. This depends on a positive correspondence between the individual's lifestyle/work personality and the work/lifestyle environment.

Applying the Minnesota Theory of Work Adjustment for disabled employee recreational programming provides a way to diagnostically measure lifestyle/work personalities, needs, abilities, and associative environments. Determining these factors facilitates a positive work and lifestyle adjustment. Effective recreational programs for disabled employees must consider the business structure as well as appropriate work/lifestyle experiences which attempt to address the unique needs of the individual. Whatever the actual organizational structure of the program, it must account for the variables described by the Minnesota Theory of Work Adjustment.

The disabled employee's lifestyle/work personality consists of individual abilities and needs, whereas the work/lifestyle environment consists of capabilities required for satisfactory work/lifestyle performance. The latter can be satisfied by the job reinforcer (work incentives) system. When the disabled employee's abilities correspond to the abilities required by the work/lifestyle environment, satisfaction results: the employee can perform in an appropriate work/lifestyle setting. When the disabled employee's needs correspond to the job reinforcer system, there is congruence between the work environment and an associative healthy lifestyle. If the disabled employee is happy with

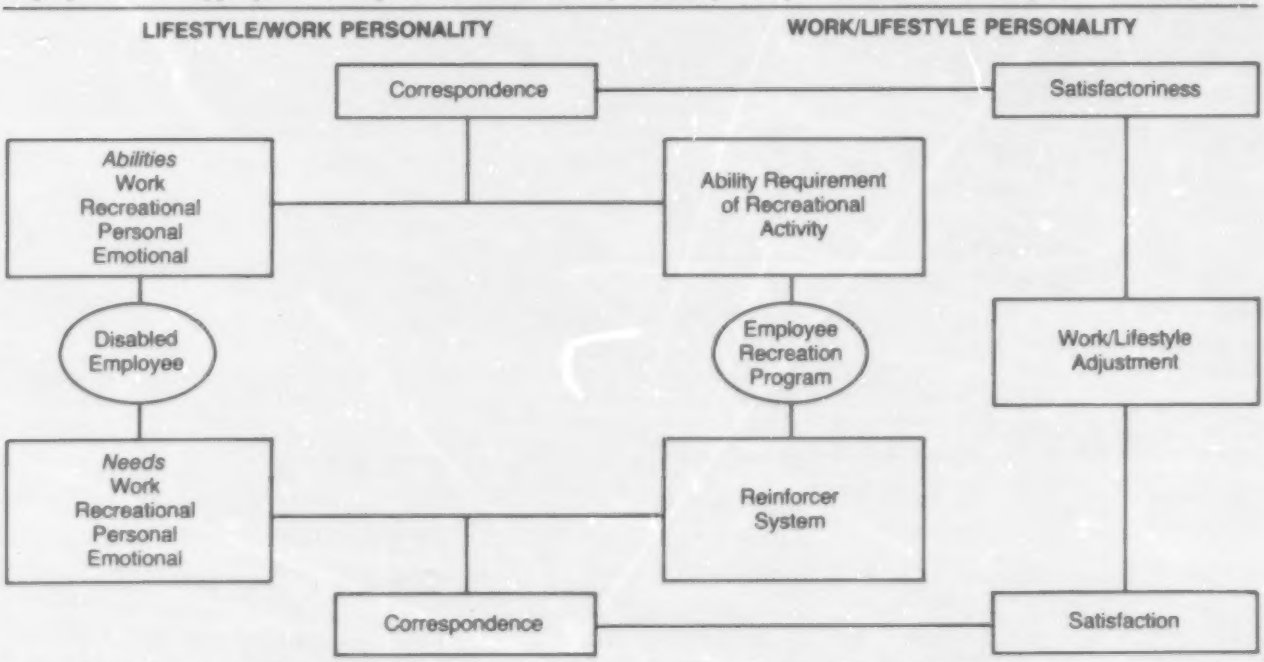

Figure 1. Application of Minnesota Theory of Work Adjustment to Disabled Employee Recreation Programs (Dawis, 1967)

work and lifestyle, appropriate work/lifestyle adjustment and personal stability evolve.

The following are components by which to measure the adapted model.

Abilities can be evaluated by situationally, existing recreational/fitness assessment with or without modification, clinical assessments and/or other recreational aptitude instruments, and/or rating scales.

Ability requirements can be evaluated by recreational activity analysis, sociometric techniques to measure the amount of organization existing in recreational groups,[3] and analysis of existing facilities, equipment, and program offerings.

Needs can be evaluated by personal interview, interest inventories, personality measures, expressed needs, and past history.[4]

Reinforcer System can be measured by job/life style analysis and occupational reinforcer patterns.[4,5]

Although this theoretical model may appear to be the logical result of analysis, it may be conceptually incomplete. That is, the *implicit* values of existing employee recreation programs are the *explicit* values of the recreational program for the disabled employee. Unfortunately most recreational programs for the disabled, therapeutic or not, are operationally separate, unsynthesized with nondisabled programs.

Perhaps one solution to this dilemma may be derived from *Theory Z*. Ouchi stated that the tenet behind the "Z" organizational structure, which differs from the typical hierarchical or bureaucratic organization, is that "Z" organizations have achieved a high degree of consistency within their internal culture. Ouchi noted that "the natural force of organizational hierarchy promotes a segmented relationship and attitude. A wholistic relationship provides a counterbalance that encourages a more egalitarian attitude."[6]

Making Theory Z work in an employee recreation program designed to accommodate the disabled employee usually requires an individual who desires to implement holistic change. Obviously no one begins by completely changing an entire program, especially when its success depends upon mutual and integrated cooperation. Therefore, one cannot expect to follow an exact procedural change sequence.

In Ouchi's description of the steps necessary to make Theory Z work, many steps will overlap since change is holistic, not discrete.

1. *Understand Theory Z and your role by open debate and discussion and by resisting employee skepticism and uncooperation.* When skepticism is addressed, mutual trust can develop.

2. *Audit the employee recreation philosophy to determine if there is "inconsistency between word and deed."* The philosophy should suggest the ways employees appraise, value, and trust the program. This may be done by outside consultants, discussion seminars, or questionnaires.

3. *Define the desired management philosophy and invite the company leader.* Organizational change cannot occur without executive support. Generally a top leader will not dismiss appropriate holistic consensus because it potentially can develop greater trust between management and non-management levels.

4. *Implement the philosophy by creating both structures and incentives.* At this step the applied Minnesota Theory of Work Adjustment model or a similar one might be created and adopted. Positive and holistic incentives should be promoted, while avoiding incentives based on power strategies. (Warwick and Kelman identified power strategies as incentives which may be opposed by the target group.)[7] The strategist decides it is more cost-effective to change behavior first, and hope that attitude changes will follow.

5. *Develop interpersonal skills.* These skills are necessary to the flexible modification of programs as needs change. Ouchi suggested that problem-solving by "ambiguous rank" increases interpersonal skills while decreasing the typical subordinate rank patterns which prevent cooperative employee interaction.

6. *Test yourself and the system to determine whether the system can answer the skeptics' concerns.* The test design must determine how much of the philosophy has solidified.

7. *Stabilize opportunities by offering recreational equity, challenges, and participatory decisions for all disabled and nondisabled employees.* Basically, most Employee Recreation Programs succeed in proportion to the opportunity and security their experiences provide. A stable program discourages the voluntary termination of employees who may have better recreational alternatives elsewhere. In a stable program, employees at all levels share some burden to integrate the disabled employee.

8. *Broaden recreational paths which otherwise prevent sustained, satisfying experiences.* Employees who continue to participate in the same activities or experiences without vertical (content) or horizontal (behavior) movement quickly lose interest. By comparison, recreational programs which offer both movements are characterized by employee enthusiasm, interest, and commitment.

9. *Prepare for first level implementation.* To this point implementation has been directed to managerial and professional employees of the recreation program. Traditionally, employee recreation programs institute change by management invitation to employees in the lower ranks. Although the steps above may require one to two years to achieve, they should produce commendable results. Disabled employees must overcome significant skepticism to develop a cooperative and trusting relationship with the employee recreation program. This can occur only when management is consistent and positive. For their part, recreation personnel must demonstrate actual change, not merely talk about it. The environment must promote participation and reinforce the disabled employee's efforts.

10. *Seek out disabled employees to implement participation.* Ask groups of disabled employees, not individuals, for program suggestions and do not be hesitant to implement them. By this stage of the "Z" process, there should have been ample interaction between disabled and nondisabled employees. Recreational offerings should reflect semiautonomous facilities and equipment to consider both people and programs.

11. *Encourage holistic relationships among the disabled and nondisabled employees in the recreation program.* Ouchi stated that "holistic relationships are a consequence rather than a cause of organizational integration." The program atmosphere should convey "expressions of solidarity and cohesiveness" among employees who enjoy belonging to a recreational group.

Integrating the disabled worker into existing employee recreation programs can be an arduous and frequently an unrewarding endeavor. Opponents of disabled employee involvement usually will not have to look hard or wait long to express complaint. They may exaggerate errors. Accommodations must occur. Therefore, the corporate envi-

ronment should structure relationships among the work system, the individual workers, and the natural attributes of the business so as to design innovative, responsive, or reactive change.

Zaltman, Florio, and Sikorski suggest that the diagnosis of organizational change should call upon (1) various perspectives of organizational members, workers, and environmental forces; (2) different analytical viewpoints regarding the context and climate of the employee recreation program organization; (3) characteristics of the disabled and nondisabled employees both in the organizational and recreational environment; and (4) analysis of the resources available for solving problems and carrying out the organizational philosophy of the employee recreation program.[8]

To maximize recreation opportunities for the disabled worker is unquestionably a progressive undertaking. To succeed, management must be altruistic, recreational opportunities must be egalitarian, and most importantly, the work environment must be humanistic. Banathy suggests that in any systematic design program purpose always preceeds component analysis.[9] Dewey states that "geunine purpose always starts with an impulse."[10] It is overwhelmingly apparent to any chief executive that disabled employees have the "impulse" and employee recreation programs have "purpose." All that remains, and that is a big *all*, is to channel this impulsive purpose into effective employee recreational design that perpetuates the healthy lifestyle to which both disabled and nondisabled employees are entitled.

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LEISURE AND THE UNIVERSITY CAMPUS
A Holistic Viewpoint

By Tony A. Mobley

The "college experience" has many aspects that go far beyond the traditional academic program on campus. The quality of the total educational experience must, of necessity, involve the quality of the campus leisure experience. A concern for campus leisure is a reflection of the greater society; leisure is assuming a major role in the lives of all Americans as shown by almost every social indicator available today.

The mood of the country has turned dramatically toward a concern for human services and the improvement of the quality of life for all individuals. There has been a phenomenal growth of interest in health, fitness, sports, cultural activities, and many additional areas of leisure pursuits. This has permeated the entire society to such an extent that it may represent a fundamental cultural change that will have dramatic impact upon future lifestyles.

Those concerned with planning campus leisure experiences must carefully evaluate the substantive phase of the programs and experiences that are provided by various campus units, in relationship to changing interests and needs of students and the entire campus community. There must be a concentrated effort to speak to the *real* needs of the campus community as well as of the greater society. A sophisticated diagnostic model must be developed whereby real leisure needs can be determined. Programmers tend to get caught up in a "let's do more of the same" syndrome instead of looking for creative new approaches to programming. The days of "passing out a questionnaire and asking what people would like to do" has long since passed.

There is great need for an in-depth understanding of leisure behavior and campus lifestyles. The sociological and psychological aspects of leisure, along with the motivational aspects of participation, must be carefully examined. A careful analysis must be made of the real benefits which individuals receive from participation in order to achieve a positive stance toward the development of people. Extensive research will be required to acquire greater understanding of leisure behavior and motivation. This is the case throughout all of society, and it is not just limited to the university campus.

It is extremely important that a total concept of leisure evolve in order to coordinate all activities on the university campus. While the categories are not definitive, generally one would include student union activities, musical programs, theater and dramatic arts, social programs, certain Greek society activities, selected residence hall programs, athletics, recreational sports, and others. Everything that happens on campus relates to the academic life, but the areas listed above are traditionally considered in the nonacademic areas. None of these areas should be in competition with any others because each serves an important role with an important contribution to total campus life. This may best be described as a "holistic concept" of leisure on campus.

It is important that one consider that traditional mission of the university, involving instruction, research, and service, in determining the role of leisure. It is easy to identify the activities listed above with the service component, but the entire issue is much broader.

Community of Scholars at Play

One of the concepts that must be explored is that the university is a "community of scholars," and any activity on campus is related to that scholarly environment. Leisure activities provide a setting for the community of scholars "at play." They do not stop being scholars just because they attend a concert or go into a recreational sports facility. This concept has many subtle aspects, but it has important implications for the administrative processes of the university.

The following discussion includes some specific items of concern in integrating this concept. There is considerable debate about the appropriate administrative and organizational pattern for leisure programs. Leisure activities and programs should be administered and housed in, and with, that unit, or units, where they can be best supported so as to provide the broadest possible high quality services to the campus community. There are certain kinds of activities which should be sponsored through the student union or the student services division while other activities may best be associated with the traditional discipline in the academic departments. Certain kinds of music programs may best be sponsored through the school or department of music. Dramatic activities may best be sponsored through the theater department or under some otner similar sponsorship. There is no "one way," or "best way," to administratively house these programs.

A major programming area on almost every campus is recreational sports, including intramurals. It is an example of a program around which there has been much debate regarding the best way to provide services.

Recreational sports must be viewed as a laboratory for almost everything that academic programs in health, physical education, and recreation are trying to accomplish. It can also provide a laboratory for student development for many other units on campus. Obviously, it is a place where safe and healthful living can be practiced. It is a place for recreation and leisure opportunities. It seems to this observer that for a department of physical education or a school of health, physical education, and recreation not to give strong support to recreational sports would be the same as a medical school not supporting a teaching hospital.

There is serious need for greater unity and cooperation between recreational sports, physical education, and athletics. It is not unusual for conflicts to arise, but the conflicts can be resolved. It would be extremely surprising if there were no conflicts within these areas when the present demands for time, facilities, funds, and personnel are taken into consideration. The participation pressure on all of these areas has been enormous from the campus standpoint, and this is sometimes coupled with a demand for facilities from people in the surrounding community. It is impossible to even begin to meet these demands without coordination difficulties. The notion that there can be total harmony between, and among, these groups in the sense that there will be no conflict is almost absurd. A more appropriate stance would be to assume that there are going to be problems and conflicts and to assume that reasonable people can come together to resolve the issues. It is easy to be caught up into a single program with a kind of provincialism which dictates a narrow view of "protection of turf."

It is important to consider a total mission of meeting the leisure, and in particular, sport needs of a campus community which includes all the people in the various settings. The physical education service/elective course program obviously meets some sport needs of a large number of students. A large number of people are involved in the athletic program both as participants and spectators. It might be argued that being a spectator is not the best form of participation in sport, and yet it must be recognized that it is one kind of participation. These two areas are meeting certain types of sport needs on campus in the same sense that recreational sports meets another kind of sport need. In relationship to serving students, it must be recognized that those individuals involved in physical education classes and those involved in athletics as either participants or spectators are also *students*.

While recreational sports is being used as an example for several issues, it is important to realize that a similar analogy can be drawn for almost every other related area on campus. Courses in music or music appreciation relate in the same way to the university band, choral groups, and orchestras, as well as participation by attending concerts given by touring groups, etc. Theater courses and dramatic activities provide the same laboratory as does almost every other area of cultural activities. Social events also require the same coordination and planning.

The problem comes when administrators of these programs must face up to the "nitty-gritty" problems that occur on a daily basis related to schedule, staff, facilities, budgets, etc. In some cases, the real issues may relate to personality conflicts growing out of philosophical differences and the absence of an objective channel to resolve the issues. This involves relationships among areas such as recreational sports, physical education, auditorium boards, athletics, student services, etc. These programs have grown so rapidly that it may be necessary to go through one or two generations of leaders and administrators before some of the problems will subside. There may be so many scars that there is a tendency to emphasize the differences rather than the similarities between and among these programs.

Pursuing the Same Mission in Different Ways

It is time to rise above the operational conflicts and recognize that everyone is part of the same mission, which is only pursued in different ways. It does not really matter who administers a program, or to whom an individual reports, so long as there is cooperation across campus in serving the leisure needs of students. If administrators do not work together in this regard, the entire university community, particularly students, will ultimately be the losers.

Another area which needs attention is professional preparation. There are different philosophies and varying approaches to professional preparation, but it is important that this area move beyond the preparation of the "leisure technician." Professionals become involved in the day-to-day operational problems and often do not provide leadership and the kind of futuristic thinking that will be required to meet student leisure needs in the years of the 1980s, 1990s, and 2000s. The problem is that nobody will pay you to dream about the future and philosophical bases. Therefore, somewhere between the ivory tower dreamer and the person who only knows how to tune a piano or "make out a tournament schedule" must come a highly qualified professional who can provide for day-to-day operational details and yet look ahead in a concentrated planning effort to meet campus needs of the future.

A Call for Long-Range, Conceptual Planning

It is time to develop a sophisticated approach to long-range master planning for campus leisure. This is not a new notion, but far too few professionals engage in this process. Planning should not only take place for building and facilities, but must also include some conceptual planning relating to program experiences. Planning for experiences is a different process from planning for facilities. Facilities and programs are really only "tools" to be used to accomplish the purposes of the university.

It is certainly important to meet the immediate leisure needs on campus, but it is also important to develop a positive attitude toward participation in activities on a life-long basis. Leisure education will play a key role in this regard.

It is important to view one's self as part of the developmental team whose objective is to help individuals from all over the campus to learn, grow, and develop. Recreation specialists are not the providers of activities to "occupy time" and to "burn up energy," but they are a part of a developmental process. Opportunities for development in the leisure arena are important and should stand alongside those opportunities for development in the classroom. One is not more or less important than the other, but the experiences complement each other in providing a well rounded experiential base for students. It is extremely important that leisure be viewed as a part of a total picture and interpreted this way to the university community—students, faculty, and staff. It is particularly true for those who make decisions relative to budgets, personnel, and the like. It is easy to take a "you guys don't understand it" attitude, but that doesn't often accomplish one's objective.

Interest in creative leisure is at an all-time high, and this calls for aggressive professional leadership. There has never been a more golden opportunity to have significant impact upon the campus and the larger society. It is necessary to interpret the contribution, in the broadest sense, that leisure activities can make to campus life. Through using a combination of education, interpretation, research, and "good old political strategy," it should be possible to achieve recognition of the real substance of the leisure experience and to participate in a meaningful way in the life of the community of scholars.

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PLAY ON!

By Bill Harper

There is nothing particularly easy about pulling off a quality campus recreation program. No doubt Murphy phrased his law ("If anything can go wrong, it will.") with an eye to the typical program difficulties. Either tickets to a concert will exceed the number of interested people, the people will exceed the number of tickets, or the tickets will arrive the day after the concert. The warranty for a piece of expensive equipment will run out the day it is paid for in full. There will be either too many referees for a game or none at all. In placing blame, no one is to blame if there is more than one person responsible; conversely, no one is responsible if there is more than one person to blame. Specially reserved space for an activity won't be. There will be too many teams for a game field, no teams, the wrong teams, or the field will be under two feet of water from a break in a new and improved plastic water pipe. Unbreakable canoes will. The wind will blow the day after the annual kite festival; snow will fall both too early and too late for the annual ski trip. And almost always the money is there—it just can't be spent for what is necessary.

And when everything else is going wrong, the dean of whatever decides to press for a clear and distinct explanation of just exactly how the campus recreation program fits into the mission of the school, college, or university. At this point, the obvious escape is to simply and without much fuss commit suicide. But given the way Murphy hovers over the directors of recreation programs, odds are that even that would get fouled up somehow—say the rope would be just a smidgen too long. Consequently, the most popular escape is to rest on another so-called law, one of Boren's laws: "When in doubt, mumble."

If we are prone to mumbling when cornered about the proper fit or relationship between our programs and education in the main, it is understandable. To make these programs

. . . real civilization cannot exist in the absence of a certain play-element, for civilization presupposes limitation and mastery of the self . . . civilization will, in a sense, always be played. . . .

—Huizinga

go swimmingly and to occasionally outwit Murphy, one's time is spent paying attention to details, not ideas. There is so much to get right and together, that little time is left over for serious reflection on possible answers to stubborn questions like this one. Furthermore, people doing the seemingly herculean task of coordinating these important but fragile programs may not themselves be inclined toward philosophic thinking, even if time permitted.

The rub comes in when it is noticed that the very existence of the recreation program on campus somehow presupposes some kind of essential connection or link between recreation and education. And presumably all the dean wants to know is how the two fit. Now, if the truth were known, the dean would no doubt be hard pressed to clearly and distinctly describe the nature of education proper into which recreation is somehow supposed to fit. Deans do, on occasion, mumble too. But the dean's predicament does not help us out of ours. We are supposed to know the answer to the question our programs presuppose: What is the connection between campus recreation and education in general?

Mere Recreation

The ordinary way in which campus recreation and education are understood to fit together is that the former is but the handmaiden to the latter. That is, campus recreation instrumentally serves to minister in various ways to those who are chiefly engaged in the business of education. Recreation is not part of education itself. It serves to pleasantly divert otherwise mischievous-tending students. It serves to restore students and faculty wrought up from the rigors of study. It serves to give students and faculty a regular cathartic release of their corked up emotions. It serves as an important student recruiting and retention tool. It serves to give various living groups ways to measure themselves against one another. It serves . . . .

By and large then, campus recreation programs are ordinarily thought to be necessary because they are useful, not because they are educational. Let us call this instrumental version of recreation *mere recreation.*

Another Approach

Another way to see how recreation and education connect is to look for some third notion which might be common to them both. If there is a third sort of something that is essential to the natures of both recreation and education, then we at least have a logical place to stand while hammering out truthful answers to this legitimate philosophical question. Mumbling will be far less popular or necessary if we can find and begin to describe clearly and distinctly a connector or link between the two. This connector may be *play.*

The Play of Education

Imagine an intellectual Order based upon objectivity and love of truth in study and upon the cultivation of wisdom and harmony. In this Order, the ultimate aim of scholarship is the cult of truth, but it is closely tied to the cult of the beautiful and to meditative spiritual refreshment. The Order combines learning, veneration of the beautiful, and meditation to find a defensible residence between the *vita contemplativa* and the *vita activa.* In alternating between the two, the members of the Order come to rest in an intermediate position of responsible social action steered by dispassionate reflection. The ultimate at-

tainment of people in this Order is supreme insight and love, affirmation of all reality, alertness on the brink of all depths. This aim—what can be called cheerful serenity—is neither frivolity nor complacency. It is the *summum bonum* of the Order. And in searching for this state of cheerful serenity, the scholar must not only attain the utmost command of the subject at hand, but must recognize the ties between this subject and all others in coming to know the idea of a universal culture, the *Universitas Litterarum*.

Well, one might say, so what? There is really nothing new about this dream, for numerous ages have called forth this sort of ideal goal of so organizing the entire intellectual content of the universe, of reconciling the arts, sciences, and religion; and of preserving and perpetuating the feeling for truth. This is little more than a lumpy description of what education is.

Agreed. But when Hermann Hesse dreamed up this particular version of cultural preservation in his last and Nobel prize-winning work *The Glass Bead Game (Das Glasperlenspiel)*, he based this Order on a surprising foundation. For what held the Order together was the playing of the Glass Bead Game. The scholars were players. All the thoughts, ideas, works of arts, creations, and discoveries in science were reduced to "concepts and converted into intellectual property—on all this immense body of intellectual values the Glass Bead Game player plays like the organist on an organ."[1]

The Glass Bead Game pursued a resolution of thesis and antithesis into a synthesis of perfect being:

> . . . the symbols and formulas of the Glass Bead Game combined structurally, musically, and philosophically within the framework of a universal language, were nourished by all the sciences and arts, and *strove in play* [italics added] to achieve perfection, pure being, the fullness of reality. This "realizing" was a favorite expression among the players. They considered their Games a path from Becoming to Being, from potentiality to reality.[2]

Thus, the Glass Bead Game was conceived as a mode of playing with the entire content and values of culture, culture meaning the very genius of the age: ". . . it plays with them as, say, in the great age of the arts a painter might have played with the colors on his palette."[3]

And finally, the Glass Bead Game was created to include all intellectual pursuits, especially music and mathematics. It was so appealing and so logical, no single scholar could avoid its pull:

> We must shape and cultivate our universality, our noble and perilous sport with the idea of unity, endowing it with such perennial freshness and loveliness, such persuasiveness and charm, that even the soberest researcher and diligent specialist will ever and again feel its temptation and allure.[4]

Although set sometime in the future, Castalia (the name of the Order) represents, for Hesse, any set of human experiences devoted entirely and exclusively to the affairs of the mind and creative imagination. He says he sees wise men and poets and scholars and artists "harmoniously building the hundred-gated cathedral of Mind"[5]—and this by the play of thought.

Farfetched? Although Hesse's book was fiction, the central idea of the fiction may be fact. For example, what if Eric Hoffer is correct about the way in which prehistoric man got on in the world? Hoffer tells us that "whenever we try to trace the origin of a skill or practice which played a crucial role in the ascent of man, we usually reach the realm of play." For Hoffer, man mastering his environment was not necessarily "a grim, relentless struggle for existence." Says Hoffer:

> It is imperative to keep in mind that man painted, engraved, carved, modeled long before he made a pot, wove cloth, worked metals or domesticated an animal . . . . When grubbing for necessities man is still in the animal kingdom. He becomes uniquely human and is at his creative best when he expends his energies, and even risks his life, for that which is not essential for sheer survival. Hence it is reasonable to assume that the humanization of man took place in an environment where nature was bountiful, and man had leisure and the inclination to tinker and play. The ascent of man was enacted in an Eden-like playground rather than on a desolate battleground.[6]

What if there is something to the Greek notion about school essentially being a playground of sorts? After all, the Greeks refused to call anyone "educated" who could not sing and play. Our word "school" comes from the Greek word, *skole*, which means leisure. Leisure did not mean then, as it often seems to now, passive resignation or escape from the work world, idleness, diversion, frivolity, or empty busywork. Instead, leisure was thought to be a spirit of creative human activity which includes such qualities as silence, contemplation, wonder, fantasy, and festivity. Accordingly, schools are to be set up for persons to disengage themselves from the workaday part of the world in order to learn to see the whole world more clearly. Schools are to encourage persons to step back from the routine matters of particular lives in order to play with ideas about the whole of life.

The Essential Kinship Between Education and Play

Even the Latin language roots take us to some kind of necessary play-element in schools. If we look up the Latin for school, we find *schola;* but we also find *ludas*. And *ludere* means play. The schoolmaster becomes the *ludimagister* (the playmaster, the Magister Ludi of *The Glass Bead Game*). And a *ludus litterarum* is a school for learning the elements of knowledge. So, once again, in the origin of our modern words we find a tie between schools and play.

What is Vittorino da Feltre (1378–1446) knew something special when he named his school *La Giocosa*? Gianfrancesco Gonzaga, the Marquis of Mantua, lured Vittorino to his court to set up a school. The villa the Marquis made available to Vittorino had been called *La Gioiosa*, or "House of Pleasure." Vittorino changed one letter, calling his new school *La Giocosa* or "House of Play," and established the first and most noteworthy school of the Italian Renaissance.

The upshot of all this is that it seems entirely possible that there are some factual precedents in the past for what Hesse fictionalizes for the future—that there is an essential kinship between education and play. Indeed, education dwells within the larger magic circle of play.

The Play of Recreation: The Play Factory

It is usually taken for granted that where one finds campus recreation one finds play. But given the various ways these programs get pushed from pillar to post in being pressed into useful service (mere recreation), there may not be good reason for such an assumption.

In fact, what with the time-consuming efforts to avoid fumbling and mumbling, we frequently forget to acknowledge the actual grounds of recreation—the play element.

While hatching our recreation programs we must keep the idea of play in front of us to remind us of what we're doing. No matter the pressure from others to do so, we must not get up and walk away from play.

If we keep a steady eye on play we might find our campus programs being refashioned a bit. As an illustrative example (not a model to necessarily follow) the Play Factory at Emporia State University in Kansas was created with an eye on this illusive link.

The first discovery was that play behaves the same way humor does. Humor, according to E.B. White, "won't stand much blowing up, and it won't stand much poking. It has a certain fragility, an evasiveness, which one had best respect. Essentially, it is a completely mystery."[7]

What we caught of it from literature and observation was enough to guide program decisions, more or less. Play is free-activity. It is engaged in for the sake of nothing other than the activity itself. It is activity/spirit in which the person can experience the self-distance necessary for the mastery of self Huizinga speaks of. It is tied into other humanizing experiences such as adventure, secrecy, fantasy, peace, dignity, wonder, beauty, creative imagination, and especially love. And in transcending the routine matters of daily lives it can bring one to joy—the impulse for saying Yes! to life.

Using these essential characteristics as guides to program alternatives, Play Factory developed around six different categories of play. Not only was there a club sport program, more or less structured sports and games, and largely informal and unstructured recreational activities, but

Play transcends the routine of daily living; play is free activity. Campus recreation programs need to tinker with traditional formats and provide program alternatives like those shown here encouraged by the Play Factory at Emporia State University in Kansas.

photos: Bill Harper

in addition some experimental categories were developed. These other play categories allowed some tinkering with a variety of play forms.

For example, some of these play experiences included: festivals and celebrations around natural holiday and contrived themes; play days using many unique playful activities; sports and games with modified rules; inventing and playing of new games; encouraging international play, for example, *jeu de boules* or *pétanque* from France, yackendowney from Australia; bringing back old, largely forgotten games and plays; staging regional play, for example, street games from New York, tobacco spitting from the West; historical revisiting of ages past, like the play of the Plains Indians and medieval play; altering play environments, such as with music, lighting, spatial rearrangements; building innovative playgrounds for children and older "children"; writing and distributing on campus various pieces of play propaganda and interdisciplinary literature and research on play; toy collecting for holidays and for a toy library; hot-air ballooning; creating oversized plastic inflatible "wombs" for play; inventing myths around which play will appear; digging an occasional mud hole; and otherwise just playing with play.

The Play Factory is simply one example of what campus recreation might look like if the nature and significance of play is attended to and not taken for granted. No doubt other and better programs are presently being quietly explored, and still others are yet to bloom.

Feeding the Impulse To Play

If any of this thinking makes sense, there should be good reason to cherish campus recreation programs—not for their instrumental usefulness but for their intrinsic educating nature. For it seems that in cultivating the play spirit in such programs there is a fundamental turn to what is at the very source of the impulse to want to know anything at all. In this move toward the play connection, mere recreation vanishes. Genuine re-creation appears. Recreation programs, in the end, provide experiences which feed and care for the indispensable human impulse to play.

Play on!

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[1]Hesse, Hermann, *The Glass Bead Game*. (New York: Bantam Books, 1970) (originally: *Das Glasperlenspiel*, 1943), p.6.
[2]Ibid, p. 30.
[3]Ibid, p. 6.
[4]Ibid, p. 214.
[5]Ibid, p. ix.
[6]Hoffer, Eric, *First Things, Last Things*. (New York: Harper and Row, 1971), See chapter 1.
[7]White, E.B., "Some Remarks on Humor" (adapted from the preface to *A Subtreasury of American Humor*, Coward-McCann, 1941) in *Essays of E.B. White*. (New York: Harper and Row, 1977), p. 243.

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COLLEGE UNION STAFF
Leisure Educators, Researchers, Consultants

By Christine Cashel
and Lynne Krause

With the advent of more experiential and self directed curricula and the emergence of part-time education, students are confronted with new freedoms, a wider range of alternatives, and less restraints in their choices of college education. Time has become a precious factor. How students spend their time before, after, and in-between classes has always been a major focus of the college union/student activities staff. The union building functioned as the primary domain for students during their "out of class" time. Major emphasis was given to providing a central or common building on campus that would house both recreational and leisure facilities as well as programs.

Historically, professional union staff were seen as programmers whose main function was to provide programs and operate the facilities. As the concept of student development became popular in the late 1960s, union staff began concentrating their efforts less on programming and more toward working with students in some developmental approach. This evolved into the concept of "programming or student union boards," where students were selected to be the program planners with professional staff's role being that of training students in program design and production. The training of student leaders through their involvement in student government, program boards and other campus organizations became the educational function of the college union staff.

Cherry and Woodburn, in their book, *Leisure: A Resource for Educators* (1978), note that leisure interests, attitudes, and skills are not innate and have to be learned. Students come to the college community with a set of habits and experiences that do not necessarily fit in their new environment. The backgrounds and personal experiences of many may prevent them from exploring their leisure interests culturally, socially, or recreationally. Lack of awareness, and underdeveloped or dormant interests can contribute to a frustrating and confusing period. Students may seek help in resolving this conflict and ways of developing their leisure skills and methods of providing satisfying experiences within their new environment.

Union staff can take a leadership role in emphasizing the importance of leisure. They take on the dimensions of researcher, educator, and consultant on campus. The "researcher" function is that of seeking out and acquiring the necessary knowledge or data concerning the campus environment and its population. The "educator" function is developing methods by which to effectively present the data to students. The "consultant" function establishes processes for utilizing the students' responses to the data and provides a means for information to be channelled to appropriate areas within the university. It is important to note that these role functions operate concurrently and occur during all phases of the leisure model (see below).

This concept has been incorporated into the goals of the Department of Co-Curricular and Leisure Programs at Temple University. Initial steps have been taken to set up a model whereby leisure needs and interests of students can be met within the university structure. The goal of this process is to assist the students in becoming independently functioning individuals capable of assessing and fulfilling their leisure needs. The model consists of four phases and is based on a values clarification approach.

1. *Identification of Needs and Skills*

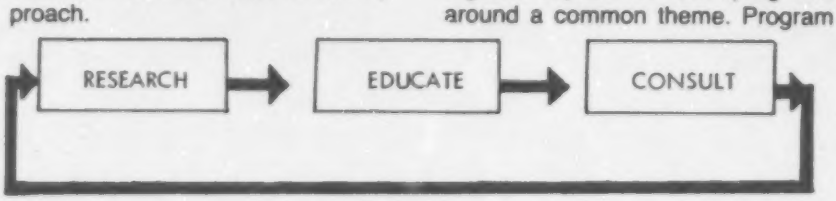
Students are first introduced to the concept and term "leisure" and how it is important during their educational experience. They become aware that leisure is often taken for granted but can enhance the time that they spend on campus. Through the use of personal profiles, questionnaires, peer-led discussions during orientation, group discussions in the residence halls, plus personal contact with staff members, the students begin to establish a process by which they identify their leisure interests and skills and decide which past experiences they want to pursue and what new interests they would like to try.

2. *Classification of Needs and Skills*

Students further examine their leisure interests by classifying them as physical, mental, cultural, and social. It is emphasized that any leisure interest is important and can be developed. At the same time professional staff have identified and classified available resources across the campus in the same leisure modes—(physical, mental, cultural, and racial).

3. *Participation*

Staff assist the students in pursuing their needs and skills by directing the student to the appropriate place on campus. Students with similar interests can be introduced to an organization which sponsors activities in a particular area. When interests have campus-wide impact, program clusters are developed where a variety of groups and individuals are brought together to plan a series of programs around a common theme. Program



cluster groups exist only as long as the planning, production, and evaluation of the event takes place. This maximizes the opportunities for many different students to become involved at any level of the programming process. The staff will support any interest area and must remain flexible enough to meet the needs of students as interests and needs are met and change.

4. *Evaluation*

Evaluation by staff and students must be ongoing and happen at various levels. Activity areas must be assessed in terms of satisfaction for the participant. Quantity of students helped in addition to quality is important. Evaluation can be assessed by informal contact, written evaluations, and/or group discussion.

Presently, at Temple, this concept has been introduced at orientation and in the Residence Halls. Staff have begun to integrate the model into their relationships with students. At this point, the effectiveness of the new model has not been determined. An evaluation of its effect on students at Temple University is planned and should yield useful data.

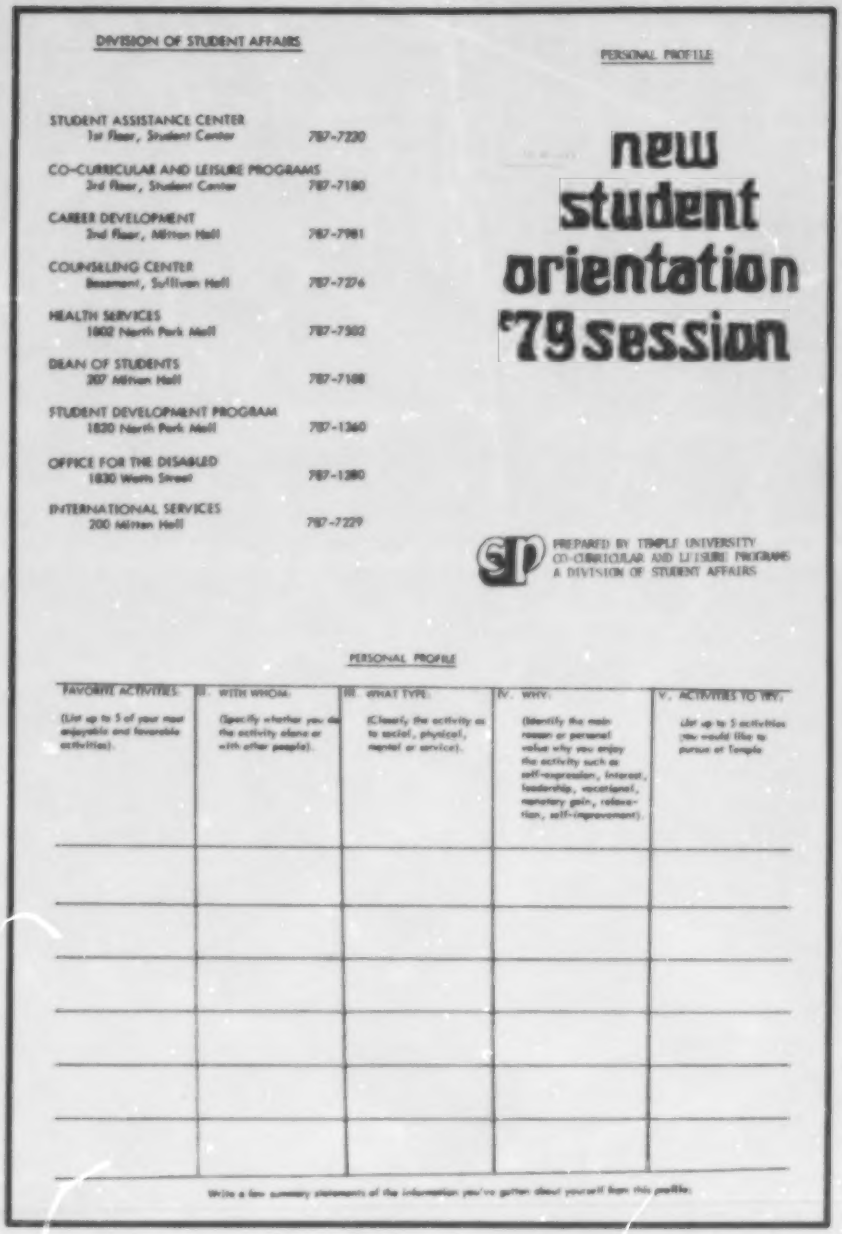
A Skill for a Lifetime

There will always be those students who can easily find and fit into a group on campus. However, it is our contention that there are many students who need help and support in getting started and finding satisfying leisure experiences.

Providing for leisure is not a new idea for people working in the student activities/union field but educating for leisure is a relatively new role for the college union staff. They too have often taken the idea of leisure for granted and have not understood how important it is to develop leisure abilities. Professionals in the area must expand their horizons for leisure delivery on campus and attempt to reach larger segments of the student population and not stay within the student union building working with a relatively small group of students.

An updated data collection and evaluation process is imperative as professionals attempt to reach out to all segments of the campus (faculty, administration, students). They become resources for the campus in terms of what the needs and interests of the current student population are and should share that information with the rest of the university. Their mission is educational and cannot be separated from the university's mission of educating and preparing individuals for the future.

Using the model described here, the student learns to identify interests and needs and begins to find ways to express them on the campus without professional assistance. This skill is carried on throughout his/her life.



DIVISION OF STUDENT AFFAIRS

PERSONAL PROFILE

STUDENT ASSISTANCE CENTER
1st floor, Student Center 787-7220

CO-CURRICULAR AND LEISURE PROGRAMS
3rd floor, Student Center 787-7180

CAREER DEVELOPMENT
2nd floor, Mitten Hall 787-7981

COUNSELLING CENTER
Basement, Sullivan Hall 787-7376

HEALTH SERVICES
1802 North Park Mall 787-7502

DEAN OF STUDENTS
207 Mitten Hall 787-7188

STUDENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM
1830 North Park Mall 787-1360

OFFICE FOR THE DISABLED
1830 Wirth Street 787-1280

INTERNATIONAL SERVICES
200 Mitten Hall 787-7229

new student orientation '79 session

PREPARED BY TEMPLE UNIVERSITY
CO-CURRICULAR AND LEISURE PROGRAMS
A DIVISION OF STUDENT AFFAIRS

PERSONAL PROFILE

I. FAVORITE ACTIVITIES. (List up to 5 of your most enjoyable and favorable activities).	II. WITH WHOM. (Specify whether you do the activity alone or with other people).	III. WHAT TYPE. (Classify the activity as to social, physical, mental or service).	IV. WHY. (Identify the main reason or personal value why you enjoy the activity such as self-expression, interest, leadership, vocational, monetary gain, relaxation, self-improvement).	V. ACTIVITIES TO TRY. List up to 5 activities you would like to pursue at Temple

Write a few summary statements of the information you've gotten about yourself from this profile.

Through the use of personal profiles (such as the simple form reproduced above), peer-led discussions, and personal contacts with student union staff, students can begin to establish a process by which they identify those leisure interests they would like to pursue. Participation and evaluation complete the procedure and help develop a lifetime ability to select satisfying leisure activities.

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LYNNE KRAUSE is assistant director for program development, Department of Co-Curricular and Leisure Programs, Temple University, Philadelphia, PA 19122.

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COMPUTER COORDINATION FOR CAMPUS INTRAMURALS

By Bruce Holley

There are many challenges and frustrations in running a large intramural program for over 25,000 activity-minded students. How does an intramural staff effectively organize, schedule, and track such numbers as 500 bowling teams, 700-900 basketball teams, and 500+ flag football teams (just to mention 3 of 60 different events offered) and still keep the needs and desires of the students foremost?

The intramural program at Brigham Young University (BYU) has a tradition that dates back to the early 1900s. The program and the student participation have grown steadily to become one of the largest intramural programs in the country. As the years progressed, so did the need for additional full-time and part-time personnel. More efficient ways of performing tasks became necessary for this growing program.

The philosophy and objectives of intramurals at BYU have always been directed at serving the needs of the students and giving them the quality program they deserve. Five years ago the intramural administrators became concerned with the overwhelming amount of paper work that seemed to be directly opposed to their objectives. Graduate assistants (GAs) in the capacity of intramural coordinators were becoming totally occupied in such tasks as trying to schedule 700 basketball teams in 87 leagues per week. Their time was spent recording final scores, indicating team power ratings, registering sportsmanship, forfeits, and defaults as well as handling numerous double scheduling problems and protests. The intramural program had become so large that the coordinators were working 30 hours a week for a 20-hour pay check, spending 90% of their time steeped in paper work and not enough time serving the students' and program needs. This provided the challenge for Brigham Young University.

It was found that other universities were facing the same predicament and were in need of new ideas and concepts to solve this statistical nightmare. Computer application seemed to be a possible answer but, other than a few small attempts, no program had been developed in intramurals.

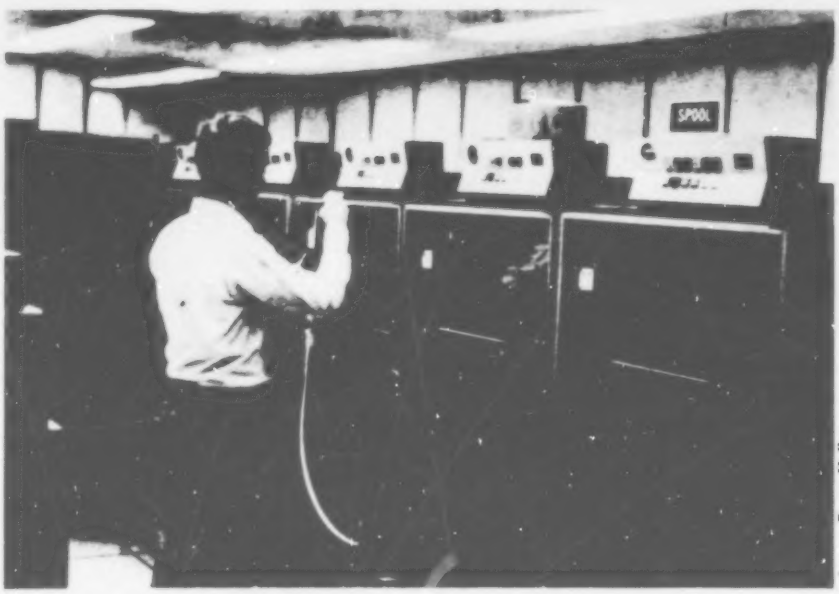
Where does one start when looking into the possibility of computerizing a comprehensive program? BYU went to their Computer Department for a thorough feasibility study, which turned out to be very positive. After careful consideration of the University's resources, the budget requirements, and the potential for such a program, it was determined the following benefits would result: overall increased efficiency, better service to the students' needs, a superior evaluation device, and more consistency year in and year out, even though student personnel turned over quite rapidly. This would help eliminate hundreds of hours of scheduling conflicts, mistakes, and problems that occurred with the old program.

The following is an overview of the computerization of Brigham Young University's intramural program, a result of over two years of study and development. Special recognition goes to Bruce Nielsen, assistant dean of Admissions and Records and master programmer for Brigham Young University, whose incisive mind developed this revolutionary program.

Overview: Computerized Program

When a team enters an activity, the coach fills out an entry form. This includes all team statistics, names, student numbers, telephone numbers, etc. Each team is assigned a division (e.g., competitive or noncompetitive) and league. The team information is then entered into the computer via the CRT (computer terminal) screen in the intramural office. This is the master record from which all other

After two years of study and development, the intramural program at Brigham Young University has a computerized system for organizing, scheduling, and tracking its extensive participation offerings.



photos: Bruce Holley

programs will function. The master record will track individuals and teams, keeping vital statistics on all they do in intramurals.

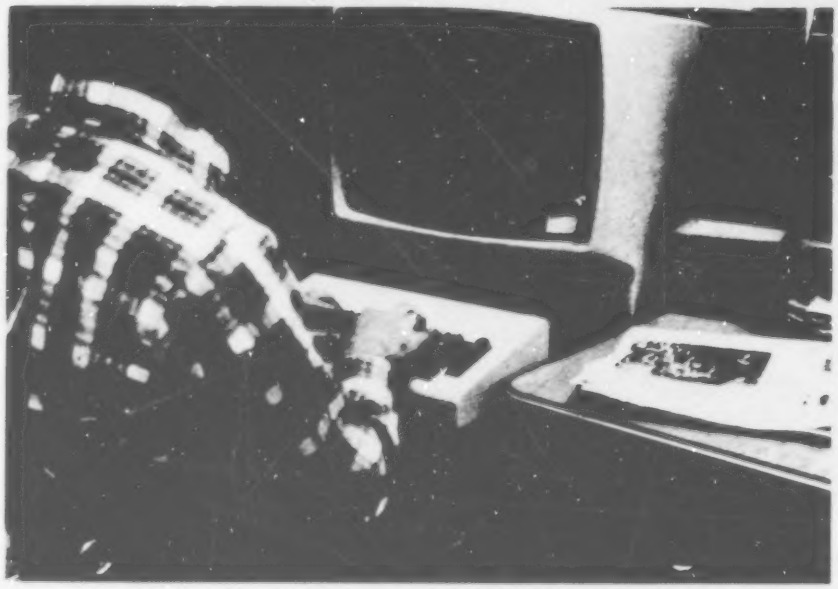
By using the CRT screen, any of the following information can be obtained:

1. An instantaneous check of students' status to tell whether they are eligible to participate in intramurals (e.g., full-time or part-time).
2. The win/loss record, what teams they have played, and what their team power rating and sportsmanship was for each game played.
3. Who played in each game and who, if any, were suspended.
4. Identification of officials and evaluation of their performance throughout the program.
5. A complete history for each team (can be brought up for review, additions, or deletions).

The graduate assistant in charge of this program schedules the teams for play each week. He/she does this by entering into the computer the facilities and times given by the facility coordinator. Once this is done, the computer schedules each team to a facility, time, and day, taking into consideration some of the following features:

1. The computer will check eligibility. If the team is eligible, it will be scheduled.
2. If a team fails to show up (forfeit), the computer will drop the team from further play.
3. Two fair or one poor sportsmanship rating or two excused losses will automatically drop the team from further play.
4. The computer prioritizes teams according to the number of games they have played and schedules first those teams with the fewest games played.
5. If, when scheduling a league, the computer runs out of facilities, it will then assign byes to all other unscheduled teams and put them on priority for the next schedule.
6. Print-outs are produced for posting on campus; they have the following information:
   One team versus another team
   Each team's win/loss record
   The facility in which they have been scheduled
   The time and day they will play
7. The print-outs list teams in alphabetical order.
8. The scheduling program has a variety of capabilities. It can schedule on a weekly, bi-weekly, or an entire semester basis.
9. The computer recognizes a team's identity and will not schedule any two teams to play each other more than once, as in a round robin tournament.

The paperwork connected with efficient operation of a big intramural program has become a monster, eating up 90% of staff time—until computers were called upon to save time that could be turned to student services.



Success with the intramural computer program at BYU gives promise that computerization of intramural departments is the wave of the future.

After the computer schedules the teams, it will produce a team game sheet with the following information: team statistics, names of players, opposing team name, and the facility, date and time scheduled. The game sheet is a universal form that is used for all team activities administered, e.g., basketball, football, softball, water polo.

The intramural computer program at BYU has an inventory of or access to:

1. An IBM 360 computer, or one of similar capabilities.
2. A CRT screen with on-line tie in to the admissions and registration data base.
3. An on-line printer.

The entire program has been written in COBAL with the core developed around the tele-processing system. All programs can be manipulated, adjusted, and revised through the CRT (computer terminal). All of these computer programs can be adapted to smaller units, even mini-computers that do not have on-line capabilities.

Re-cap and Evaluation:
A Computer Bonus

At the end of the year, the computer is used for program evaluation, statistical analysis, and a final report. Every activity administered through the Intramural Department is analyzed by the computer for participation, money spent, and other criteria to determine program effectiveness. (Appendix E - K). Many questions can be answered that few, if any, universities with a large program could answer without such assistance. Such questions are: "How many freshmen, sophomores, juniors, seniors, graduates, and faculty participate in the program?" "What are the percentages of each?" Is the program serving the needs of the students?" "What is the ratio between male and female participants?" These are just a few of many questions that can be answered by the computer, to assist you in justification of the program.

One problem with such large numbers of teams playing each week (500-700) was being able to schedule, run, and oversee the program. With the computer doing the work, time is freed for the leaders, which allows them to deal personally with the students. This is essential for quality programs.

Brigham Young's intramural program is a large diversified one, thus lending itself to computer support. Other universities on the same scale may find this type of computer program to their liking. In smaller schools an adaptation of all or portions of the program may better suit their needs.

The computer program at Brigham Young University has not eliminated any personnel. It has, however, improved our ability to serve the student and has eliminated hundreds of hours of scheduling and other book work. The graduate assistants operate in the best of both worlds—they are being exposed to advanced techniques of computerization and to traditional ways of administering programs by hand when the task is considered too small for computer application. Some might say that even though many problems are eliminated, the computer will create more. This may be true to a certain extent, but once understood and developed, the computerization of intramural departments across the country will be the way of the future.

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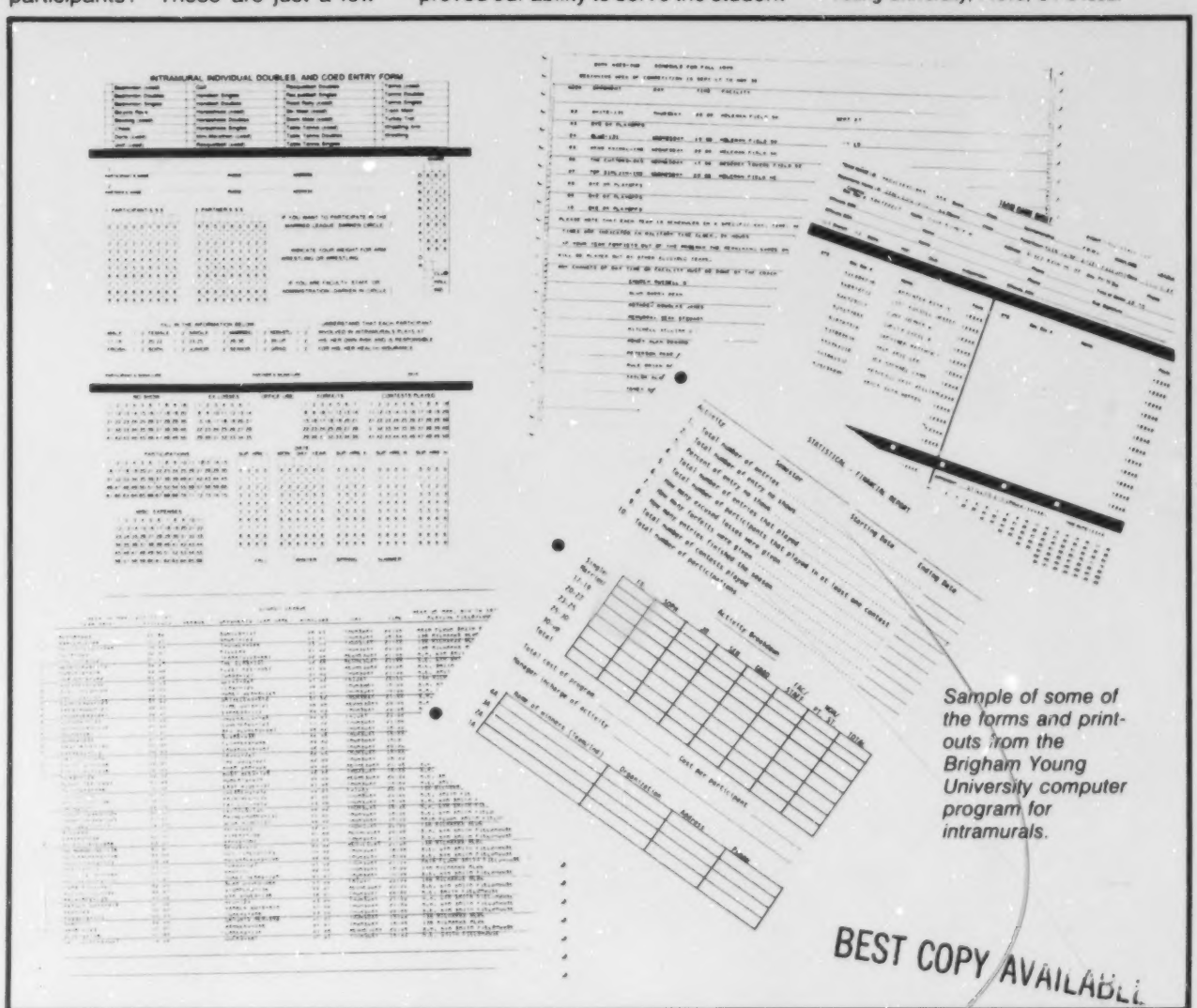

Sample of some of the forms and printouts from the Brigham Young University computer program for intramurals.

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The Treatment Team Approach

Michele Garibaldi and Mary Moore

Conservative figures project that crime in America increases at a rate of 10% annually. Much attention has been given the sociological and psychological makeup of the criminal offender in an attempt to modify criminal behavior, and thus to reduce the incidence of criminal acts. There is also a growing concern for the nearly one-half million offenders under supervision of the American correctional system, a population which constitutes one of the most educationally, vocationally, and culturally deprived groups in the United States.

Traditional correctional practices have failed either to deter or to effectively rehabilitate the criminal offender. "In the 1973 Report on Corrections, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals recognized this fact and called for dramatic changes in correctional methods."[1]

The Commission set forth many comprehensive requirements relating to the educational, vocational, and leisure-recreational opportunities. "The one specific area that has received little attention but has great potential as being a possible factor in the commission of crime is the ability of an individual to use leisure time wisely and productively. There are three basic time blocks in any 24 hour period: a period in which the individual must work to provide for his basic material needs; a period devoted to personal maintenance in which the individual must eat, sleep, and take care of the human physical needs; and a third period that is discretionary time or time that an individual has to do with as he pleases. This period is known as leisure time. When we go one step further in the investigation of time, we find that few crimes are committed in either work or personal maintenance time. Rather, the commission of crime occurs during the individual's leisure time."[2] However, as one analyzes the three broad categories of how work, personal maintenance, and leisure time is used by any person and applies those categories to institutionalized individuals, it becomes evident that the availability of leisure time far exceeds the other two by a wide margin. The amount of time spent in formal psychotherapy and/or resident labor cannot approximate what a person on the outside would spend in providing for his material needs. Basically the same can be said for the time spent in personal maintenance. Probably one-half of an incarcerated individual's time is spent in leisure.[3]

"Recreation has been utilized as an experimental technique to modify socially deviant behavior with a probation population. In a court in Indiana it was determined that approximately 98% of the crimes committed by men being tried in that court were committed during leisure; further, it was revealed that 92% of the men placed on one year probation were rearrested for subsequent criminal acts. In an attempt to reduce the recidivism (relapse into criminal behavior) rate in that court, a condition of probation was added that required each man to learn new leisure skills. This new condition, along with the other conditions of probation, were strictly adhered to, and 24 months later the recidivism rate was 14% for those men placed on one year probation. It is apparent that when an individual can substitute an activity that he enjoys and that gives him inner satisfaction as well as positive social acceptance, he no longer will have to rely on deviant acts to satisfy his inner need for challenge, recognition and acceptance."[4]

The Treatment Team

Most correctional facilities function with the intent to alter the attitudes of the offender so that he can return to society as a productive, law-abiding citizen, functioning successfully outside the confines of a secure environment. One approach to rehabilitation (to restore to a condition of health or useful and constructive activity) of the offender is to use the treatment team approach, in which a team of professionals work toward a common goal: rehabilitation of the incarcerated individual. Psychologists, clinical social workers, rehabilitation therapists, nurses, physicians, psychiatrists, educators, and leisure therapists should all comprise the treatment team.

The North Florida Evaluation and Treatment Center at Gainesville, Florida, is a maximum-security forensic mental health institution (a restrictive environment, providing housing and treatment care for incarcerated individuals ordered through the legal court procedures which deal with the relation and application of medical facts to legal problems). Fifty per cent of the staff employed there are women who hold key professional positions in management, treatment, and administration, an unusual, although highly valid approach in dealing with an all male incarcerated population. "The validity lies in the importance of having women present, helping the male offender to deal appropriately with females through having women participate in group therapy sessions. Women are also involved in the facilitation of courses in assertiveness training, social skills, group skills, sex education, leisure education, and many other basic life skill courses. Many of the male offenders have major problems dealing

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with females in authority situations. Males treated in an all male setting actually live in an artificial world, and do not know how to appropriately relate to a bisexual world. Generally they have not learned how to relate to women at all, nor have they learned to relate to men positively."[5] The presence of women in this environment gives offenders the opportunity to learn how to deal appropriately with females in a controlled situation. Offenders have the chance to learn that their stereotypes of women are not valid. This is a viable alternative to incarcerating a male in an all male staff setting only to release him back into society to deal with females in the same manner that he did before incarceration.

In most correctional settings, administrative systems regard leisure/recreation activity as sports and physical education. This attitude limits potential services and the quality of experience available to help the offender to restructure his life (restructuring goes one step beyond rehabilitation; it attempts to rebuild the value systems of the offender).

The majority of criminal offenders, seen as defective in ego development and/or normal maturation, manifest personality problems and grossly aberrant behavior. As persons who are judged socially deviant in outlook, living patterns, or behavior, they are not considered competent to stand trial for their criminal acts.

The first task in rehabilitation is to define precisely the problem which prevents each offender from functioning effectively in society. Second, corrective therapeutic programs must be designed to overcome the problems which led to the individual's incarcertation. Finally, it must be assured that these experiences are available and carried out.

Not only are penal institutions bureaucracies, as are any tax-supported institutions, but they are also further complicated by the restrictiveness of a maximum security environment. This restrictiveness creates a closed, tightly-knit environment and often a highly volatile situation. As a way to undo the "knitting," the coordination and cooperation of all aspects of the institution—administration, programs, inmates—can be vitally important in both reducing internal tension and facilitating bureaucratic chains of command.

The treatment program approach seeks to enable an individual—through learning and living experiences—to function at a level to cope effectively in a free society. "Learning experiences and reeducation should be based upon individual needs. These learning experiences should take place in a positively reinforcing environment embracing all aspects of the individual."[6]

Program Model and Purpose

It is imperative to define the role and function of rehabilitative modalities used within an institutional setting. It is with this premise that the Leisure Therapy Program Model was designed (see Figure 1). The leisure therapy programs serve 225 adult male criminal offenders incarcerated under the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services at the North Florida Evaluation and Treatment Center in Gainesville.

The number of offenders referred by the courts to the mental health system has dramatically increased. These offenders are considered unable to stand trial because of a mental illness or condition which was a major factor in the commission of their offense. There are also a number of mentally ill individuals in the prison system who need extensive evaluation and treatment. These individuals include those considered incompetent to stand trial, those who are not guilty by reason of insanity, and those who are mentally disordered sex of-

Figure 1

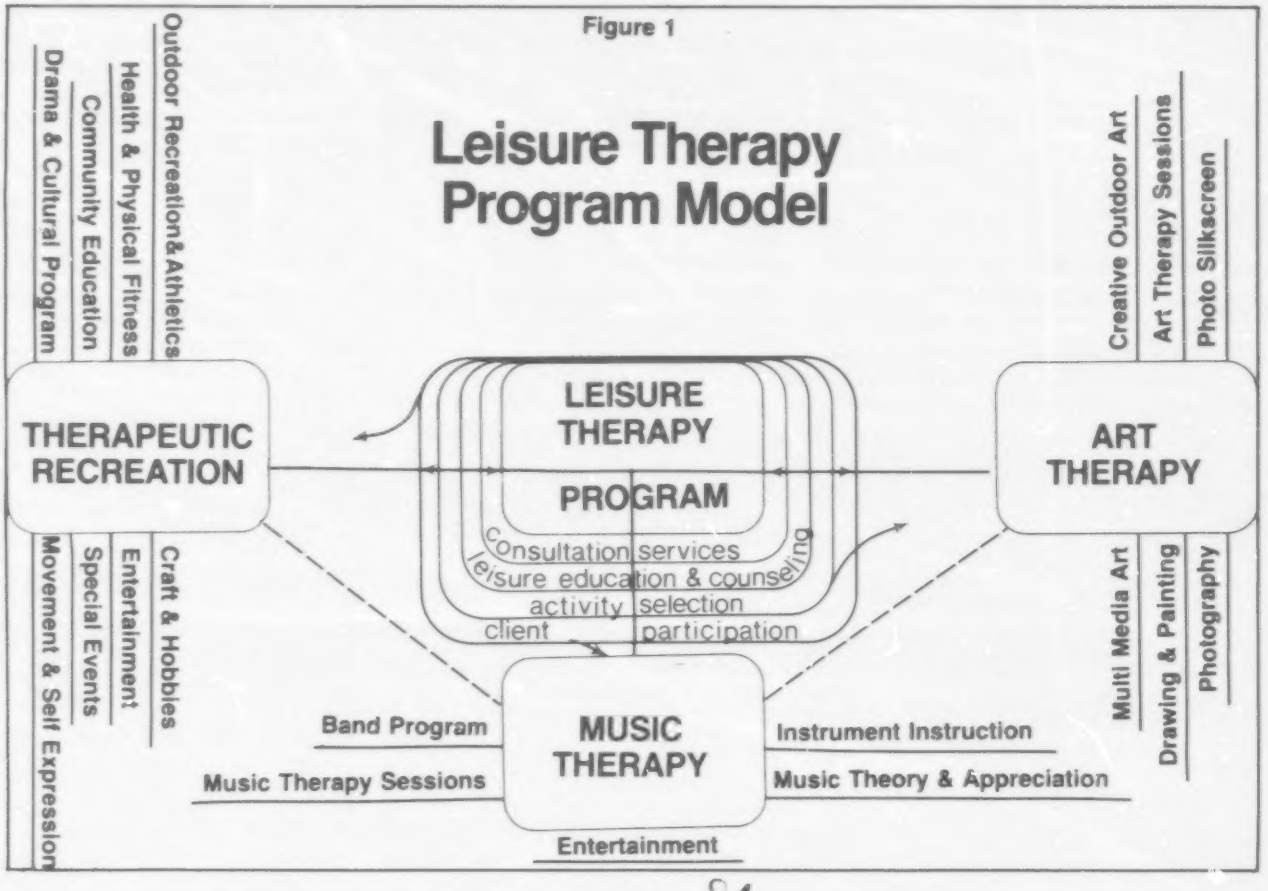


Photo: Federal Bureau of Prisons

fenders (persons who repeatedly commit sexual offenses—rape, molestation, incest, exhibitionism, voyeurism—because of mental defect, disease or disorder and who are susceptible to the commission of sexual offenses to such a degree that they are dangerous to the health and safety of others). These offenders need comprehensive evaluation and intensive treatment for a variety of emotional problems. True rehabilitation is found in dealing in some fashion with every aspect of the offender's life. Leisure pursuits are not only universally important but totally indispensable for functioning in today's society. Attending to the needs of an individual in a variety of activities will serve a three-fold purpose. First, the offender will directly benefit from the program involvement for a variety of personal reasons, including carry over value. Second, the staff can make a more accurate assessment of an individual's progress in treatment if they have professional input from areas outside the primary treatment program. And third, including information in the court summary on the individual's leisure interests, aptitudes, values and pursuits, of each offender, will assist in enabling the courts to reach valid decisions in dealing holistically with individuals returned from institutions. The primary function of programs is to provide a variety of therapeutic learning experiences that the offender may relate to on an individual basis; the anticipated by-product of any such efforts will contribute significantly to the individual's overall rehabilitation."[7]

The treatment program approach seeks to enable an individual—through learning and living experiences—to cope effectively in a free society.

Individual participation in these programs provides a unique analytical tool with which to judge and compare actions/reactions documented in other program components. The leisure therapy programs can and should provide input for clinical summaries and/or related communications between the facility, the courts, and other outside agencies. Since offenders are assigned to an institution for rehabilitation, it is logical to assume that an all-encompassing therapeutic approach is desirable.

The leisure therapy programs comprise art therapy, music therapy, and therapeutic recreation, and are a distinct part of the rehabilitative services provided within the institution. The leisure therapy treatment team consists of a professional multi-disciplinary team of six who contribute to the overall rehabilitation of the offender: an art therapist, a music therapist, three recreational therapists, and a director of leisure therapy. The focus of the professional leisure staff is the development, design, and delivery of quality therapeutic programs for the specialized needs of those individuals referred to programs for specific clinical reasons based on analysis of needs.

Programming is designed to provide learning experiences and constructive and creative activity. Activities within these programs are designed to arouse the individual's interest in self-development and to promote self-directed personal growth. Guiding offenders to understand the value and use of their leisure time, and providing them with the necessary skills to do so are basic program objectives. To be effective rehabilitation in any restrictive environment must address an individual's immediate needs and pre-

pare the person to live in an open society. The intent of the leisure therapy programs is to provide environments through which an individual experiences, learns, creates, and becomes exposed to leisure activities.

Several goals are common to most leisure therapy programs. Programs are designed to reflect individual needs, to enhance and develop the offender's positive self-concept, to minimalize institutional shock and reduce anxiety, to establish appropriate social behaviors, to release negative emotions positively, and ultimately to anticipate self-reliant growth and learning experiences in a free community.

At the core of the leisure therapy program are leisure education classes and leisure counseling sessions; their purpose is to guide the offenders in making valid choices in the use of their leisure time. The long-range goals are to help the individual prepare to re-enter society by clarifying the value of leisure as integral to daily living and to give each person a better understanding of himself.

An ongoing process, the leisure counseling program helps individuals select activities which best suit present interests and which lead to greater self-direction in future leisure choices. Leisure therapy programs include an art therapy program comprising technical and creative arts of photography, photosilkscreen, multimedia art, drawing and painting, creative outdoor art, and art therapy. Music therapy includes instrument instruction, band programs, music theory and appreciation, and entertainment.

Vitally important to the emotional and physical well being of any incarcerated individual are general health and physical fitness programs. Traditional outdoor athletic activities include basketball, football, and volleyball. A contemporary approach to health and physical fitness programming includes raquetball, handball, vita par-cour jogging, aquatics, tennis, movement self-expression, yoga, and body conditioning. Crafts and hobbies, special events, entertainment, drama and cultural programs, and community education are also a part of therapeutic recreation services.

Team Concept

All leisure therapy programs are viewed as collaborative efforts between the individual's primary treatment team and the leisure staff. They require a great deal of cooperation between concerned staffs and a commitment to a team approach. The treatment team should maintain open channels of communication, designing individual treatment plans with professional input from all team members. Regular staff evaluations are held not only for the offender, but also to consolidate team information. At an evaluation staffing, professionals offer knowledge and opinions in their field of expertise. The primary therapist updates the offender's progress and status. Then the offender is questioned by team members. After listening to the offender, team members give input. For example, the leisure therapist might recommend team sports to help the offender deal with antisocial behavior through appropriate team interaction and alleviate depression through gross motor movement. The leisure therapy program serves as a lubricant for the primary treatment program. Therapists' feedback provides an additional perspective on the individual's progress. Behaviors or experiences are elicited through which both specific and very general processes can be objectively determined.

Photo: Federal Bureau of Prisons

An inmate participates in a horticulture-landscaping program, part of the vocational training offered at the Federal Correctional Institution at Danbury, Connecticut.

Problems

Unfortunately the treatment team approach is not always easily implemented. Many factors block the effectiveness of this rehabilitation approach. "General problems which may exist in the delivery of leisure therapy programs as a treatment team model approach include: (1) the degree of priority given to leisure programming by treatment staff and administration; (2) internal scheduling conflicts; individuals are not released from residential buildings in time to participate in programs. Scheduling constraints are an ongoing problem in most institutions and may defy solutions; (3) individuals are frequently restricted from attending programs as a punitive measure; (4) the prevailing traditional attitude exists that one must work on necessities before deserving or earning leisure time, thus treatment staff feel strongly the need to guard formal treatment times which generally fall into the times when folks on the outside would be engaged in work. They further see the enormous block of time which residents have for leisure and generally conclude that leisure therapies could best be conducted in those blocks of time. Unfortunately, most institutions do not have enough leisure therapists to provide leadership to cover the vast amount of "free" time."[4]

In general, leisure programs are considered secondary to group therapy or any other psychotherapy. The degree of priority given to leisure programs by the treatment staff and administration can be a major problem, leading to innumerable hurdles to be jumped. When administrators and treatment staff lack a contemporary leisure viewpoint, funding will not be allocated for the necessary number of professional leisure therapists. Staff/offender ratio is critical to communication, education, program publicity, leadership, program implementation, and effectiveness. Most institutions are understaffed; they generally maintain a skeleton recreation/leisure crew, or lack a professional staff to accommodate leisure program services altogether. A team mangement approach to program leadership and delivery is vital to help alleviate stress and overextension of ex-

isting staff and to avoid compromising program offerings.

Conclusion

As leisure professionals, we need not defend our existence. Our services meet basic human needs and are crucially important within a restrictive environment. Furthermore, recreational and therapeutic aspects of leisure programming—being able to use leisure time constructively, knowing and understanding the ability to exercise control, and feeling capable of accomplishment and creativity—are dimensions of the rehabilitative process.

Leisure activities afford a degree of free personal choice and enjoyment. Typically a part of normal community life, they can reduce the abnormality of institutional life. Institutional based leisure programs should elicit the offender's interest in self-development.

The introduction of leisure therapy programs has visibly given the offender, staff, and administration alike a new perspective on "recreational" activities, promoting the recognition that leisure pursuits are beneficial to treatment. These gains lend credibility to an understanding of maturation as independence, personal self-esteem, social adequacy, and academic, vocational, and leisure skills acquisition.

A conclusion may be drawn that involvement in the institutional community, along with creative and constructive activities, enriches the offender and institutional environment in the same way creative and constructive activities enhance the quality of life in any community.

We must promote contemporary leisure thought.

> Institutions have inherent difficulties in promoting the kind of communications and professional understandings which lead to good programming. A harmonious treatment environment can only exist through the development, promotion and practice of cooperative efforts and attitudes. Professional working relationships must coincide with a mutual respect for the idea that every staff person in every function and role is important to the success and rehabilitation of the incarcerated individual.[9]

Innovative approaches in program design must be established in correctional settings to impact on rehabilitation of the offender population. The promotion of parallel professional acceptance through inservice orientations will assist in establishing internal support, cooperation, and ultimately, respect for and justification of program services.

Footnotes

[1]"Creative Use of Leisure Time Under Restrictive Environments," *The American Correctional Association, Application Guidelines, Project Culture*, 1977.

[2]McCall, Gail E., "Creative Use of Leisure Time Under Restrictive Environments," *The American Correctional Association, Project Culture*, 1977, p. 23.

[3]Walsh, Don A., "Treatment Team Approach To Leisure Therapy in a Correctional Setting," Article Review and Editing, The North Florida Evaluation and Treatment Center, Gainesville, Fla., 1980.

[4]McCall, op. cit.

[5]Walsh, op. cit.

[6]Garibaldi, Michele, "A Model—Creative Use Of Leisure Time Under Restrictive Environments," Speech, National Recreation and Park Association Congress, 1978.

[7]Slone, Garibaldi and Millott, "Leisure Education Program," Learning Resources Department Manual, the North Florida Evaluation and Treatment Center, 1980.

[8]Walsh, op. cit.

[9]Garibaldi, op. cit.

Leisure Restructuring

Gail E. McCall

Leisure restructuring, a new concept being introduced into recreational programs,[1] is based on the premise that the delivery of leisure services in correctional institutions should have a two-fold purpose: (1) to relieve the daily tensions that are created by incarceration, and (2) to develop both existing and new leisure skills that have personal benefit to the inmate and carry-over value into the community through leisure education (see Figure 1).

The first part of the Two-Pronged Approach, the delivery of leisure services within prisons and correctional institutions, exclusively addresses the release of daily tensions generated as a result of the unnatural incarceration environment. An individual placed in a single sex institution loses all freedom of choice, e.g. freedom to chose what he does, what he wears, what he eats, and with whom he associates. Deprived of these choices, the prisoner builds tensions which may peak to the open and hostile violence of prison riots. Inmates who experienced the New Mexico State Prison riot in February 1980, which resulted in the savage death of 33 men, indicated that "overcrowding, bad food, harassment, dirt, and the lack of recreation"[2] were among the paramount issues that lead to the uprising.

To take its place as a viable and integral part of the correctional system, a recreation and leisure services program must contribute to the system as a major program for relieving the tensions that exist within all restricted environments. A specific part of the program must develop opportunities to vent pent up energies, frustrations, and anger in a healthy and acceptable manner. Many current correctional recreation programs are dealing effectively with excess energy, diverting inmate attention from the daily tensions of incarceration through physical activity. Weight lifting, softball, basketball, football, and many other physical activities allow inmates to release anxiety and stress on a daily basis. Movies and reading provide additional tension release by allowing the inmate, however briefly, to become mentally involved with the characters in the movie or book. These tension-releasing activities are also currently found in most correctional recreation programs.

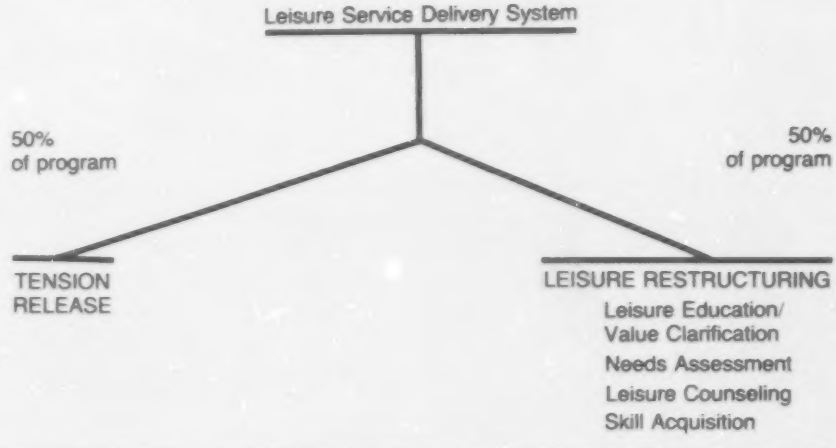
The second aspect of the Two-Pronged Approach in the delivery of leisure services in restricted environments is leisure restructuring. Restructuring includes leisure education/value clarification, needs assessment, leisure counseling, and skill acquisition. The restructuring aspect of the recreation and leisure program, the most technical and difficult to incorporate, is currently found only in a few correctional recreation programs.

Leisure restructuring does not deal solely or exclusively with the leisure needs of the individual but more broadly addresses the individual as a multifaceted member of society. Each individual has unique needs and problems that must be dealt with in an understandable manner.

Leisure restructuring begins with leisure education. Here the individual is exposed to the role that leisure has played and will continue to play in life, learning how leisure experience can enhance the quality and increase the number of available options. Once the impact of leisure has been discussed and the inmate clearly understands the concepts of leisure education, the restructuring program moves into the value clarification phase.

Value clarification should help each individual identify his need for praise, belonging, acceptance, self-esteem, self-concept, self-control, self-image, and self-worth. These necessary values, as well as methods for achieving and satisfying them, should be discussed at length. The

Figure 1:
Two-Pronged Approach for Delivering Leisure Services



Gail E. McCall, formerly chief probation officer for Morgan Superior Court, Morgan County, IN, is associate professor of recreation at the University of Florida.

Photo: Federal Bureau of Prisons

Alone in his quarters, an inmate explores interests which may increase the number and enhance the quality of options open to him when he re-enters the larger community.

inmate should understand for example, that all people have a need for praise; one who does not receive praise or recognition from a job or other facets of life should pursue leisure activities that have the potential to satisfy this need. If self-control is a problem, leisure education and value clarification should assist the individual to recognize uncontrolled temper and to learn activities which use hostile energy positively and divert attention from further negative action. The individual must recognize personal needs and the way using leisure can assist in satisfying them.

The next step in leisure restructuring is compiling a "needs assessment inventory," including both past leisure history and future desires for leisure activity. Several tests may be used, among them McKechnie's *Leisure Activities Blank*[3] and McCall's *Leisure Interest Inventory*.[4] A caution should be noted here. These tests or inventories should not be administered prior to the leisure education and value clarification component of the program. If the tests or inventories are administered first, the inmate will make choices based on perceived likes and dislikes rather than on activities having a potential for satisfying a need or value. The needs assessment should reveal two separate areas of the individual's leisure. First, it should reveal "recreation pursuits," activities and frequency of participation prior to incarceration. Second, the assessment should reflect the individual's "leisure interests," activities the individual would like but for some reason has never engaged in. There are many reasons an individual may not have attempted a leisure activity in the past. Facilities may not have been available or the individual may have lacked the necessary skills; the cost of the activity may have been prohibitive. Once the assessment has been completed, trained leisure services personnel should carefully evaluate the stated recreation pursuits and leisure interests helping the individual to balance his leisure activities previously pursued with new activities to help the inmate develop new leisure perspectives.

The next step is providing leisure counseling and opportunities for skill acquisition, two areas which go hand in hand. As the individual becomes involved in the leisure service program, a trained leisure counselor should help the inmate discuss his satisfactions or dissatisfactions with current activities. The inmate should be encouraged to discontinue participation in an unsuitable activity and pursue another with greater benefit.

For the leisure services program to accomplish the goals of restructuring, it must work closely with all other institution programs. The leisure services personnel must become active team members with academic and vocational education, psychological and sociological counseling, classification, security, and administration to determine all possible needs of each individual. The entire institution must be involved in the restructuring needs of each individual. Through the team approach, the recreation and leisure services program truly can become a therapeutic tool to help individuals reassess their needs and future goals.

Footnotes

[1]North Florida Evaluation and Treatment Center, "Project Culture," Federal Grant Program, American Corrections Association, Gainesville, FL, 1977.

[2]Michael Satchell, "The End of the Line," *Parade* Magazine, *St. Petersburg Times*, September 28, 1980.

[3]George E. McKechnie, *L.A.B. MANUAL*, Research edition, Consulting Psychology Press, Inc., Palo Alto, CA, 1975.

[4]Gail E. McCall, "The Leisure Patterns of Adult Male Probationers in Morgan County, Indiana," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, 1977).

The Future of Correctional Recreation

R. D. Brayshaw

In 1979, reported crime took its biggest jump in five years. According to FBI statistics, serious crime rose 9% over 1978. On an average, there were 5,522 reported crimes per 100,000 of population. An increase in the crime rate can reasonably be expected to translate into an increase in the number of clients within correctional systems, and this in turn would lead one to expect an increase in the population of institutions. Indeed, this has been the case in a number of jurisdictions throughout the United States where judges ordered reduction in institution populations to alleviate overcrowding.

One might now expect that new institutions would result due to the increasing demand for bedspace. The rising cost of energy, however, has led to general price increases running about 10% per year in North America. At the same time, taxpayers have indicated very clearly to politicians that they will not tolerate large increases in government spending. This position, illustrated by Proposition 13 in California, has resulted in a rethinking of positions on social programs in Canada as well as in the United States.

During the 1970s, correctional authorities across the continent became more aware of recreation as a form of programming which offers opportunities for some positive forms of behavior change for inmates who wish to alter their lifestyle. In some jurisdictions, recreation has begun to creep out of its sweat-sox, and leisure education, fitness programs, outdoor education, and other constructive forms of leisure time use have found their way into prison programs. The federal courts in the United States have played their part in many institutions by ordering recreation programs, and the American Corrections Association has included some standards for recreation in its certification program. These factors have influenced correctional administrators to accept recreation programs. By the mid-70s it appeared that correctional recreation would be fully recognized.

Today, unless recreationists take prompt action, developmental advances in correctional recreation are about to come to an abrupt halt; the movement is likely to shift into reverse.

Today, unless recreationists take prompt action, developmental advances in correctional recreation are about to come to an abrupt halt; the movement is likely to shift into reverse. The motivating force will be the dollar squeeze between rising costs and relatively lower government revenue. Budget constraints will take their toll of recreation as well as other services which are seen by administration to be soft or optional, but the relatively minor paring of the budget will not serve to overcome the economic problems facing the government today. Real dollar relief can only be found by, at least, maintaining the present numbers of people in prison and, at best, reducing that number. Several jurisdictions in both Canada and the U.S. have begun to divert people from prison through increased use of programs such as probation, community service orders, and bail verification. At the same time, there is an acceleration of the parole process to move people out of prison at a faster pace. All these ploys are aimed at reducing the number of people incarcerated at high cost and dealing with offenders in the community under minimum supervision at a much lower cost. There is also a move away from elaborate training programs in the prisons and toward what has been termed "humane confinement."

Unfortunately the diversion and accelerated release programs deal only with minor offenders among the present prison population. Removing the less violent and more rational offenders from institutions results in a hard-core aggressive, emotionally disturbed population which is quickly turning prisons into violent places which justify elaborate security hardware and precautions, and creates the necessity to eliminate education and recreation programs. As this trend continues, recreation will become more and more a "babysitting service." A few sports to tire people physically, and movies and television to dull them mentally will be all that will be required of the recreation officer of the future.

The move toward community corrections is not really a choice. The cost of the alternative—building bigger prisons—is even more unpalatable than the struggle to learn, after the fact, how to operate successful programs in the community.

If recreation is to play an appropriate role beyond diversion for the hard-core institution population, within the correctional system, members of the profession must quickly adapt by providing quality service outside the institution by realigning institution programs to meet the new reality.

One of the obvious roles in the community for the correctional recreation worker will be to develop and operate individual and group leisure education programs and counselling for parolees and probationers. Along with extensive counselling and leisure education, there will probably be a need for assistance programs which support clients first becoming involved in a new lifestyle.

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It seems likely that correctional recreation workers will also be called upon to provide counselling and education services to the courts in some jurisdictions, so that direction to seek help in restructuring leisure time patterns can become part of a probation order.

Leisure education in this context will have to include teaching leisure skills since a large percentage of the clientele will lack basic skills such as social etiquette, library use, craft skills, and basic physical activity skills.

The task of the correctional recreation worker of the future will be that of helping people to change lifestyles in the community rather than providing diversions within institutions. It will require an even deeper understanding of crime and the problems which lead people to commit crimes. Both sociology and social psychology will be essential areas of study to provide a base for the application of recreation techniques to this task. Correctional recreation workers will have to train or retrain in these areas as well as equipping themselves with a sound knowledge of recreation activities, counselling techniques, and teaching skills.

As corrections work moves from the prison to the community, the community will no longer be able to close its eyes to the problem. The municipal recreation worker and private agency staff will be forced to not only recognize correctional recreation as another of the therapeutic disciplines essential to our society, but will have to participate and assist in programs.

The transition from the present situation in which the offender is hidden behind walls to the new reality in which the offender is living next door will not be an easy one. The longer we delay accepting the new reality, the more difficult it will be for us to catch up with the needs.

Section V

Dennis R. Howard, Ph.D.
Tourism
(April 1983)

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Tourism is an immensely important human activity not only of economic significance, but of social, political, environmental, and educational significance. Leisure is a fundamental element of this phenomena. Yet, despite its important implications for educators, students, and practitioners in the leisure profession, tourism has received little attention in the literature.

—Dennis Howard
Editor

The Future of Tourism

Carlton S. Van Doren

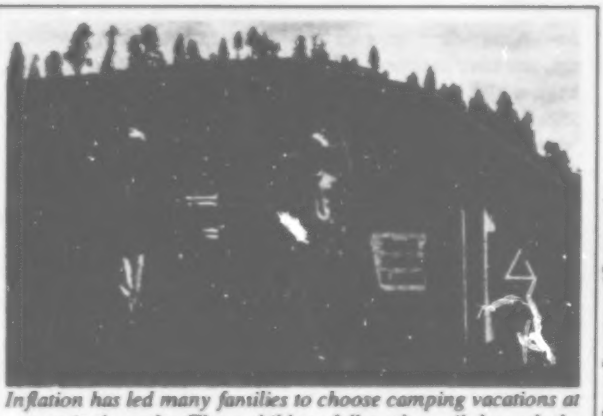
In 1966, Roy Wolfe, a Canadian geographer wrote an interesting treatise entitled, "Recreational Travel: The New Migration."[1] According to Wolfe, migrations are symptoms of stress. In the past, wars, famines and natural catastrophies have provoked large migrations. Today we are experiencing four types of migrations. The first two urban and regional residential migrations are part of population moves to and from city centers and to the Sun Belt states by persons seeking preferred living space and employment opportunities. The third migration is short term—the journey to and from work. This migration is stressful, especially in cities that lack efficient mass transit systems. The fourth migration is the movement of people looking for the pleasures of travel and escape from stress.

The urge to travel for pleasure depends upon individual motivations and cultural conditioning. Leisure travel reflects inner needs which are often difficult to describe. Since leisure travel is discretionary, most people must justify it by citing such motives as education, spiritual values, or to watch or participate in sports. Most persons prefer not to have to justify their desire for travel to others, content to recognize personal needs for self-actualization and then just to "do it." Pressed to describe motivation, persons may or may not recognize such variables such as the need for a change, search for the exotic, or the challenge of controlled adventure.

Travel is defined as all overnight trips away from home and daytrips to places 100 miles or more away from a traveler's origin. Because not all travel measured by the U.S. Travel Data Center[2] is for leisure or recreation, it is difficult to know what proportion of it is recreational.

A tourist, however, is a person traveling for pleasure. Viewed economically, a tourist spends money in the places visited that is earned elsewhere, and therefore consumes tourist services. Cohen's "conceptual tree" further defines a tourist. His tree is based upon six key words or groups of words that describe a tourist: temporary, voluntary, round-trip, relatively long, nonrecurrent, and noninstrumental purposes.[3] According to Cohen, a tourist is a temporary round-trip traveler, traveling voluntarily on a relatively long nonrecurrent trip for pleasure rather than business. Although Cohen's definition would exclude travel to conventions and professional meetings, most scholars would include such trips within tourism if the meetings were nonrecurrent and voluntary.

Irwin Robinson discussed tourism in his Viewpoint Column in *Travel Weekly*, one of several weekly and biweekly publications serving the national travel industry.[4] Robinson maintains that tourism is a term used by educators and scholars and is not widely accepted by travel professionals, (travel agents, tour operators, lodging and airline management). According to Robinson, tourism broadly encompasses "not only travel—its end product—but also such essentials as planning for future development, ecology, the preservation of old and new visitor attractions, and governmental regulatory involvement." Cohen compares the concept of tourism to the vagueness of a mathematician's "fuzzy sets." The words *tourism* and *tourist* may be new to the travel industry as Robinson suggests; however, nebulous in a strict interpretation, the words are broadly descriptive.



Inflation has led many families to choose camping vacations at our nation's parks. These children follow the trail through the lava flows of Oregon's Deschutes National Forest.

Photo: Oregon Department of Transportation

Recently, several private and public institutions directly involved with pleasure travel have included tourism in their title. The primary U.S. government agency responsible for policy development and travel promotion to the United States recently changed from the U.S. Travel Service to the U.S. Travel and Tourism Administration. The only travel research association operating in North America changed its name from the Travel Research Association to Travel and Tourism Research Association. Prior to 1975, the World Tourism Organization was called the International Union of Official Travel Organizations. These institutions recognize that getting to and from a destination is only a part of the travel for pleasure experience called tourism.

Tourism has only recently become an accepted—not deprecatory—term for scholars, if not for the travel industry. Cultural and social values have changed in the last thirty years. Someone wealthy enough to travel for pleasure at the turn of the century (a tourist) was often thought of as an idler who did not fit the Puritan work ethic expected of society. Hence many tourists of the past rationalized travel citing religion or good works. Thomas Cook, the first successful travel agent, organized his initial 22 mile railroad excursion in 1841 to a temperance convention. Today, leisure and recreational travel are considered a

right, rather than a luxury for the few. Recreational travel is the new, mature yet continually changing migration. We are perhaps riding a crest of a leisure/travel/recreational spending panic; there may be no money tomorrow.

Yankelovich and Lefkrowitz believe that societal expectations shift to adjust to the economic instability that has beset our nation in the last decade.[5] They believe that "the panic is still in the early stage of what psychologists call a "working through process." Prior to the energy crises Americans had accepted a bright future of steady economic growth, abundance, and low unemployment. Now they must adapt to new economic conditions, and to scarcity that may require sacrifice. The "working through process" requires Americans to accept a new national emphasis in which the consumption of goods is less important. Yet the changing attitudes are inconsistent with behavior. One can recognize a need for change, yet it is human nature to be reluctant to forego desires without a fight. Thus the "travel now" attitude.

The implications of this travel desire are best summarized by a historical perspective on recreation/leisure/travel eras during the last century provided in Figure 1.[6] The four eras are entitled: High Society, 1860–1929; Mass Recreation, 1929–1958; Mass Mobility and Transience, 1958–1974; and Post Mobility Adjustment, 1974 to–. In each era, ten variables briefly express the key developments, events, or philosophy of the period that have influenced current attitudes toward tourism. These ten variables are (1) population characteristics and trends, (2) personal or societal philosophy, (3) time for recreation; (4) income, (5) recreational activities and equipment, (6) political actions, (7) public and private organization for leisure, (8) advances in technology and communication, (9) mobility, and (10) facilities and services. Some variables have affected tourism more than others.

The present era, Post Mobility Adjustment, has profoundly changed the ability, if not our desire, to be tourists. The first energy crisis created a complicated chain reaction among the ten variables. The ripple effect of increased energy costs, not yet clear, increased the price of gasoline and decreased the nationwide speed limit. One very noticeable ripple is the deteriorating interstate highway system; the fuel tax used for highway maintenance has declined with the reduction of gasoline sales. Most persons may be driving less in automobiles that travel more miles per gallon. The cost of tourist services increased, and inflation reduced disposable income.

Americans are resilient and creative: increased transportation costs will be taken in stride by persons not ready to forego the mobility of the era of Mass Mobility and Transience. A brief review of the ten variables should help to highlight some major and minor adjustments.

Population. Although the population of the United States has increased more than three times in the last 120 years, the post-World War II population explosion has leveled off. The 1978 growth rate was less than 1%. This means that the population pyramid for the next decade can be analyzed with some certainty. As a predominantly urban nation grows older, the largest population group will be between the ages of 25 to 45. This group may continue the same travel and recreation habits of their youth, but they will do so with more affluence.

The population group to 65 years will increase by 10%. They will have more disposable income and, if early retirement continues, possibly more leisure time.

Variable	*High Society 1860–1929*	*Mass Recreation 1929–1958*	*Mass Mobility and Transience 1958–1974*	*Post-Mobility Adjustment 1974–*
POPULATION TRENDS	Rural N.E.—Midwest 50 million people	Rural—urban Suburbia—West Coast growth 130 million	Urban—nucleated city 70-75% of population Sun Belt growth 200 million	Central city Small town growth Back to rural 242 million (1990)
PERSON/SOCIETAL PHILOSOPHY	Nuclear large family Puritanical work ethic Self-denial	Smaller family Leisure/recreation emergent- Post-war baby boom A privilege to enjoy leisure	Single parent family Self-gratification, "me" generation Minority actions Changing role of women-ERA	"Do it now attitude" Leisure/recreation, a right Individual awareness Self-actualization Self-improvement
TIME	60-hour workweek Sunday free	50-hour workweek Saturday free Paid vacation	40-hour workweek 3-day weekends Longer vacations Working wives	36–38-hour workweek "Moonlighting"—flex time Do-it-yourself home repairs during non-work time
INCOME, MONEY	Hourly wages	Salaries	Prosperity High disposable income Era of credit 2-income families	User fees Inflation Zero growth(?) Cost consciousness Electronic money
ACTIVITIES AND EQUIPMENT	Church centered Bicycle, golf, tennis	Family centered Improved equipment Boats, camping, equip., etc	Social group Specialized activity equipment ORV's Back-to-nature movement	Electronic games Human energy Physical fitness High risk sports Use of private facilities
POLITICAL ACTION	Conservation/preservation Leadership-management of natural resources	Environmental management for public use Increased public use of natural resource areas	Reactionary leadership Environmental awareness, ecological ethics, congestion in parks	Public involvement leadership Localized congestion Strong independent action groups
PUBLIC, PRIVATE ORGANIZATION	Professional sports Public recreation movement City—national parks, Amusement parks	Amateur sports State parks TVA-C of E Regional parks Package tours	Disneyland-theme parks Misson 66 Individualized travel	Airline deregulation Tourism Caucus Recreation Coalition New U.S. tourism policy act
TECHNOLOGY AND COMMUNICATION	Photography Movies—wireless Mass production Literature	Radio—television Plastics—super alloys Air conditioning Computers—electronics	Instant photography Satellite communications Computer management	Videophone Cottage electronics
MOBILITY	Coal and steam Railroad, ship Mass transportation	Automobile, bus Airplane, small group transportation	Interstate highways RV, sub-sonic aircraft	Supersonic travel? Mass transit?
FACILITIES SERVICES	Luxury hotel/resorts Second homes-wealthy Overseas travel	Motels Second homes-middle class	Private campgrounds, lodging Franchises, fast foods Full service campgrounds (public and private)	Family camping, time sharing, cruise ships, reservations to enter parks

Figure 1
Significant Events by Recreation/Leisure/Travel Eras

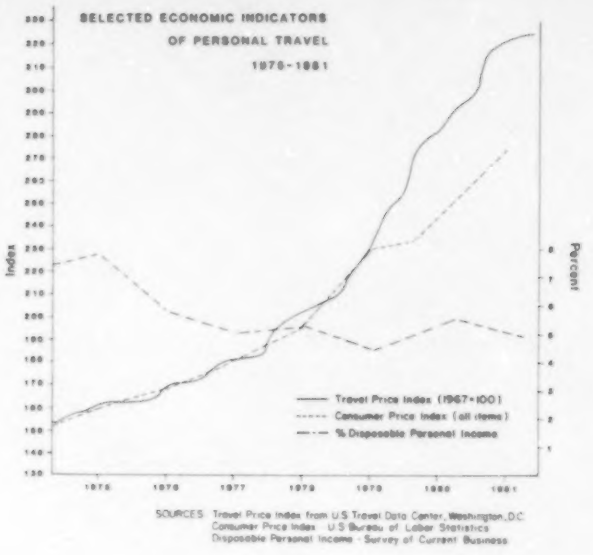


Figure 2

The over-65 group is projected to increase at twice the normal growth rate as life spans increase. This group may be less affluent, and with all travelers, more cost conscious. Tourists in the 1980s will demand quality experiences as the industry aggressively promotes imaginative travel packages and customizes travel for individuals and small groups.

Person /Social Philosophy—Time. In the past the family has had the strongest influence on leisure participation. The family group will continue to influence leisure in the next decade, but changes can be expected. Later marriages, fewer children, and single-parent households will cause shifts in recreation activities and in the times and locations of participation. Americans will probably continue to take mobility for granted and to use technological advances in transportation made in the last 50 years. Extended weekends will provide time for minivacations, such as a trip by plane to Hawaii, Mexico, Las Vegas or even London for the whole family, providing that the job-free time for the working spouses coincides.

Income—Activities and Equipment. In the past two-income households have meant more disposable income, traditionally a good indication of leisure and travel spending. This income has been declining with inflation. There are conflicting signals; a "spend now" attitude by some is offset by a "waste not frugality" by others.

The travel price index (TPI) compiled by the U.S. Travel Data Center in June 1982, was 334.4 (1967 = 100).[7] This was an increase of 5.7% since June 1981. The TPI is a composite index consisting of the cost of food, lodging, transportation and other goods and services purchased while away from home. The transportation component of this index includes air fares, intercity train and bus fares, and the cost of gasoline. The consumer price index of all items, after increasing parallel to the TPI from 1974 until mid-1979, indicated a reduced growth rate (Figure 2). The percentage of disposable personal income in the United States has declined from a high 7.8% in 1973 to 5% in 1981. Real disposable income between 1967 and 1973 increased 17.5%, but between 1973 and 1979 growth was reduced to 5.5%. These indicators help to explain the reduced spending for travel and the renewed government actions to curb credit. The TPI will continue to have a profound effect on leisure mobility. As it increases, more lower income families will drop out of the leisure travel population or circumvent lodging and food costs by camping or staying with friends or relatives.

Amid our struggle with domestic inflation, one encouraging fact is that the United States is a travel bargain for foreign visitors. If this trend continues, we can expect more foreign visitors at sites near major gateway cities such as New York City, Miami, Houston, Atlanta, San Francisco and Los Angeles, as well as in our most well-known parks. For the first time since 1945, foreign visitors to the United States in 1980 outnumbered U.S. citizens traveling overseas, 22.5 million total arrivals vs. 22.4 million departures.[8] If the United States continues to become a tourist attraction for foreign visitors, it is conceivable that the international travel spending portion of the balance of payments may remain in balance. In 1981 the 22.4 million Americans traveling abroad spent $11.5 billion, while the 23 million foreign visitors spent $12.2 billion and generated $1.1 billion in tax revenues.[9]

Political Action—Public /Private Organizations. Special interest groups have grown stronger, stimulated by the economy and the fuel crises. Reaganomics has set in motion a switch to the private sector to serve recreation/tourism demands. The formation of the Tourism Caucus and the Recreation Coalition are groups that now speak for leisure industries. The new National Tourism Policy Act recognizes politically that tourism is a vital part of the economy.[10]

Technology—Mobility. Tourism depends on the automobile and the airplane for access to attractions. In the United States, 81 to 84% of all transportation for both business and pleasure is by automobile or truck, and many persons consider the cost of gasoline critical to individual and family well-being. The automobile is a symbol of affluence and individuality. The gasoline increase by 67.9% in 1979, psychologically shook and threatened persons who had grown accustomed to subsidized fuel prices; then the handout was suddenly withdrawn. Americans are beginning to husband the use of the second most expensive possession in most families, the automobile. Some may trade down to a smaller, fuel efficient automobile to avoid loss of mobility.

However, it is the airplane that provides the access to distant and exotic places, and U.S. airlines currently are experiencing major difficulties. Some air industry's problems result from the state of the economy, others from the price of aviation fuel which increased from 35 cents a gallon in 1978 to more than one dollar a gallon in 1982. Some problems are due to poor corporate management, hastened by the 1978 Airline Deregulation Act. This act was designed to introduce the industry to the free enterprise system, giving each airline the freedom to charge deregulated fares and to start new routes at will. The regulating agency, the Civil Aeronautics Board, is to be phased out in 1985. Deregulation has brought low fares on some routes, discounted fares, and more choices of airlines to fly. Prior to deregulation there were 33 airlines; in 1983 there are over 70.[11] But deregulation has also increased fares on less traveled routes, diminished service to more than 200 cities and towns, and lowered protection to consumers. Readily available but expensive, air travel promises to become even more expensive in the future.

Facilities and Services. Like transportation, tourism facilities and services are changing and becoming more expensive. The $100 a night room has arrived in the tourist

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meccas around the world. Given the expense of commercial lodging, family tourist travel in the 1980s will have to adjust to either a reduction in the trip length and destination or a resurgence in camping, time-sharing of second homes, and more use of recreational vehicles. In 1982, the cruise ship continued to be one of the best tourist values available at an average price of $140.00 per day. In 1980, 1.3 million cruise passengers departed American ports, a 50% increase over 1978.

Recreation travel, the new migration, has been depressed temporarily in the last few years by a number of economic factors. The travel and tourism industry are experiencing a critical and trying period of readjustment. Inflation and increasing costs of mobility have forced evolutionary changes in leisure travel lifestyles. Americans become tourists for a variety of reasons, one of which is to satisfy a spirit of adventure. During the era of Mass Mobility and Transience much adventure was absent from travel because mobility was assured and trouble free. During previous eras the experience of travel was synonymous with trouble. Jerome Turler, writing in 1575, expressed, "travel . . . nothing else but a painstaking to see and search for foreine landes, not to bee taken on hande by all sorts of persons, or inadvisedly, but such as our meete thereto."[12] Yet tourism today is a part of "the working through process," as a diverse industry beset by changing government policies adjusts to electronic management, intense competition, and environmental and social congestion at transportation centers and tourist attractions. For the contemporary tourist and like Turler, these and other factors may recreate the adventure of travel, just to get there. Perhaps the next decade will put some of the original meaning back into travel and tourism as a leisure activity. Travel is, after all, derived from the word travail.

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The Perfect Tourism Curriculum Does It Exist?

Richard L. Howell

Tourism education—specifically the search for a nationally and internationally standardized curriculum—has been a subject of discussion wherever tourism researchers and educators meet. Particularly at the educators' sessions of the Travel & Tourism Research Association (TTRA) conferences, TTRA members hope that the recently-formed Society of Travel & Tourism Educators, Inc. (STTE) would address education as one of its initial issues, in keeping with its statement of goals.[1] However, the relatively small membership of this group indicates it may be several years—perhaps many more—before STTE will have any major national impact.

The issue is what should be included in an institution's curriculum and course content to effect a perfect tourism program. But one must ask, "Is such an ideal curriculum even attainable"—especially for a field as diversified as travel and tourism where the industry itself still has identity and terminology problems.[2,3] Perhaps more important is a question seldom raised in these discussions—is such a standardized program necessary, relevant, or even desirable?

Achievable Curriculum

In England, the Tourism Society conducted a study in the late 1970s which proposed a body of knowledge relating to a tourism discipline.[4,5] With few exceptions, this body of knowledge parallels that in a substantial number of tourism overview courses at colleges and universities across the U.S. and Canada. The similarity between this discipline outline and existing overview or introductory courses is hardly coincidental. Most of these courses were developed using both content and format from two widely accepted documents: *Destination USA,* a report of the National Tourism Resources Review Commission, and *Tourism USA,* prepared by the University of Missouri for the U.S. Travel Service. Both documents were available to, and presumably used by the Tourism Society in its study. Even if this were not the case, the components determined by the Tourism Society—definition, history, measurement, marketing, planning, etc.—are the same as those used for the body of knowledge of any service industry.

If such conformity exists, why continue the search? Beyond the pervasive overview course, a plethora of dramatically different programs exist among the various major segments of the umbrella industry commonly referred to as travel and tourism. Even within individual subindustries, curricula differs significantly. Most differences and controversies occur in a single area of tourism education: the newly emerging "generalist" programs. At least four factors, in addition to the obvious one of a highly diversified and rapidly evolving industry, affect this condition.

- Rapid growth in the number of programs being offered.
- Differing interests and abilities of organizing educators.
- Differing commitments and abilities of institutions to support a travel and tourism program.
- Failure of organizers to properly analyze and determine program direction or emphasis and the eventual market or societal need for its graduates.

Program Categories

The Directory of Tourism Education Programs[6] is divided into three program categories: Aviation, Hospitality Management, Travel and Tourism. It lists 123 programs in aviation, 160 in hospitality management and 93 in travel and tourism. There is overlap; some institutions offer more than one program type. Most commonly, hospitality programs have tacked on one or more general tourism courses.

Hospitality Programs

Before 1960, only a handful of university level programs relating directly to the travel and tourism field existed in the U.S. These programs specialized in aviation or hotel/restaurant operations, treating each as separate entities. One would have been hard-pressed in those days to name any hotel/restaurant management program, more recently referred to as hospitality programs, other than Cornell's, although Washington State, Pennsylvania State, and Denver had programs which were initiated in the '30s and '40s.[7] Today over 40 baccalaureate and above programs exist in that field alone, ranging geographically across the U.S. and Canada. Program reputations for quality are equally diverse. Over 100 programs in hospitality services abound at two year colleges and technical schools.

Most of the curricula in these institutions are "traditional," modeled after the European "cordon bleu" schools. Early association of these U.S. schools with professional organizations such as the American Hotel and Motel Association and American Restaurant Association tended to give educators a clear image of the graduate which that sector of the industry wanted. The essentially conservative nature of the hotel industry helped to maintain the traditional structure and content of curricula. Modifications to the European system have been made through the years to keep pace with the operations of North American chain motels and changing lifestyles.

Program emphases may differ to the extent of the host institution's financial commitment, and to a degree from the location of the program within the institution (i.e. whether in a school of business, nutrition, or education, or as a separate school devoted solely to hospitality management). Both of these factors affect other tourism programs as well. Generally speaking, however, there has been little

argument within the hospitality sector about curricula. Changes are taking place in these traditional programs, but not so much to revise existing course content as to add new courses to prepare students for managerial postures quite different from those faced by their predecessors.[8]

Aviation Programs

The transportation segment of the industry has been less dramatic in its proliferation of academic programs. In the U.S. the automobile has been king, and the only significant organized transportation mode (between the early heyday of rail travel and the recent flush of motorcoach travel) has been the airplane. The airline industry has tended to fill top level management positions through either vertical mobility within the company or by proselytizing other industries. The need for technical personnel has been filled by technical colleges or by the airlines' own proprietary schools.

There is presently little to indicate any major change in this arrangement. However, the ongoing impacts of deregulation on the airline industry, coupled with other economic and social changes in the world, may force this industry to recognize its need for people with education and skills seldom found today in the major airline companies. This need for change was alluded to recently by an airline executive discussing the demise of Braniff.[9]

Travel and Tourism Programs

Of the three categories of tourism education programs, the most recent to emerge is travel and tourism. It is the most diverse in program size, direction, and content. Most of the controversy in question seems to rest here, and it appears worthwhile to examine why.

Of the aviation programs, only 20% offer baccalaureate degrees or higher, reflecting the heavy emphasis on technical, job-oriented training in that field. This figure rises to only 30% for hospitality programs, but jumps to 46% for travel and tourism programs. The growth rate for new programs in this last category does not appear to be abating either.

A study by the New School for Social Research pointed out that the "lower level programs are much more skills-job-specific and the upper level programs are most likely to be life career oriented. . . . Each level fulfills vital functions, but it is important not to get them mixed up."[10] This observation points out several things. The high percentage of lower programs in aviation and hospitality, with emphasis on specific job skills, explains why there is less educational controversy in these areas. On the other hand, "life career orientation" is subject to a much broader interpretation, not only because of the diversity of current personnel needs as the industry may see them, but also because of future needs as the industry evolves—needs which institutions of higher education must help forecast.

Both specialist training and generalist education are needed: it is up to the educational community to define which it expects to provide. Realistically, it doesn't appear that both can be accomplished perfectly within the same program. Some compromises to the qualitative depth of each emphasis must be made. Part of the controversy among educators arises from a desire to do both without such compromise.

The Perfect Program

The ideal upper level travel and tourism program would necessarily combine a sound structure in liberal arts and sciences, followed by or integrated with additional courses in such specialties as tourist geography, travel marketing, hotel/restaurant operations, and theme park design and management. These would be followed by training specific to entry level job acquisition: ticketing and other travel agency operations, bus driving, tour escort training, and so forth combined with opportunities for field training. Such a program should produce the ideal travel and tourism manager, capable of taking on an initial job with minimum supervision and prepared for an upwardly mobile career. Unfortunately, such a program would take a *minimum* of seven years for the equivalent of a baccalaureate degree. Any attempt to provide this kind of program in reasonable depth in less time would mean shortchanging the student in some area. Experience shows this shortchanging is most likely to occur in the basic communications and logic skills associated with traditional baccalaureate programs, in favor of emphasis on the specifics of industry operations.

Among the plethora of New Mexico's archaeological attractions is Gila Cliff Dwelling National Monument, where ancient cliff dwellers built their homes.

Photo: New Mexico Tourism & Travel Division, Commerce & Industry Department

Specialists versus Generalists

One reason for the growth of travel and tourism curricula outside the traditional mold is the increasing breadth of problems confronting the modern tourism manager. The tourism educator is no longer being asked only to provide a graduate who can run a tourism operation and turn a profit; the graduate must also be aware of ecological and cultural sensitivities, be able to evaluate community socio-economic impacts of tourism-related decisions, and must anticipate and interpret implications of local, state, national and foreign-made policy.[11] In some cases the individual may help draft these policies. At the same time, the educator must also produce a graduate who may someday teach tourism to others. It should not be surprising, therefore, that some confusion exists in what direction a general tourism education program should take. Obviously, unless an institution is willing to gamble on the seven-year-plus "ideal" program, it cannot be all things to all people.

It should be recognized that the split between specialist and generalist is not limited to the break between lower and upper institutions, as it is too often taken for granted. Within upper level education there are also specialists. A Master of Culinary Arts will most likely never run an air-

line, although he might work for one. Though well prepared for a lifetime career, his advancement will probably be vertical, always in the field of food services. A Master of Leisure Services Management with a tourism emphasis, on the other hand, will probably advance more rapidly by several horizontal shifts among industry sectors. He might work for organizations as diverse as the National Park Service, a private resort, a major theme park, or a city government. In one the emphasis might be on personnel management, in another on site planning, another on intergovernmental relations or public/private sector interfacing. The key term here is "specialized flexibility," reflecting a multidisciplinary approach to tourism education. In order to help graduates maintain this flexibility, educational programs must be capable of evolving *in advance* of industry evolution. This implies forecasting and interpretation on the part of the educators from the various disciplines now involved in travel and tourism.

Flexibility is further guaranteed by a sound grounding in communications and problem-solving skills which can be applied to future situations.[12] Add to this base a knowledge of how the travel and tourism systems operate in general, their interfacing effects and industry/world trends, and one has prepared graduates for the next 10 to 20 years of career progress. They may have trouble getting that first job, but an internship/field training requirement in the curriculum should help alleviate this problem.[13]

Rarely will two educators from different disciplines agree totally on the specifics of their forecasting, although basic trends may find some meeting ground. Within the industry itself there is similar disparity, with no apparent ill results. For example, for several years now most of the travel industry has agreed that foreign visitation to the U.S. has been increasing. Yet at a recent conference on that subject, representatives of three different major corporations provided three completely different demographic profiles of those visitors, based upon the sector of the market with which they dealt.[14] Each was apparently providing appropriate services for that sector. However, a state or local tourism director needs to understand that none of these views represents accurately the totality of foreign visitors to that state or community. Such a director must be able to appeal to and provide services for all sectors appropriate to his location.

Tomorrow's Tourism Establishment

From where will such directors and other general managers of tourism come in the future? They are a new breed, the generalists—if not the generals—of tomorrow's tourism establishment. They must be capable of dealing effectively in both the public and private sector environments. A few will come from the aviation and hospitality institutions, as these programs add more scope to their traditional offerings. Most, however, will probably come from the multidisciplinary, upper level travel and tourism programs.

Can we provide a single ideal academic program which will produce such individuals? This author thinks not. This belief cannot be corroborated with any extant statistics, but is based on experience with, and knowledge of several travel and tourism curricula, their graduates and educators, and familiarity with nontourism disciplines and their often similar problems. The very multiplicity and diversity of programs ensures that when the not-yet-seen problems of the future arise, some of our graduates will be able to address them.

The industry will always need skilled technicians. It will always need the specialists produced for transportation and hospitality management. It will experience an increasing need for generalists who can work in several different milieu, about whose nature we can now only speculate.

Any attempt at national control of educational programs should not emphasize standardization, beyond introductory or overview courses, but instead emphasize quality within diverse curricula. That quality will come when educational organizers do their homework before instituting or modifying a tourism program. They must determine the need for whatever type of graduate they can appropriately produce; they must determine the host institution's support capabilities and commitment; they must determine if they have something of value to offer to the program beyond merely a personal interest in tourism.

It is appropriate for educators to continue efforts to improve tourism curricula, methodology and content. Beyond that, constant harranguing over a search for the ideal program is effort wasted. It is better used in search of ways to upgrade faculty skills, better interfacing between lower and upper level programs, and educating the industry on the proper relationship of academia to the industry. In that way, we might reasonably expect to discover several different ideal programs, or at least optimum ones. In the end, the validity of our various programs will be determined in the same way as in other disciplines: by the graduates and their career performance.

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Tourism Research

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"It was the best of times, it was the worst of times . . ." Charles Dickens's opening of *A Tale of Two Cities* serves as an apt description of the general environment for tourism.

This article provides both a status report on the current practical uses and types of research in the development and marketing of tourism and suggests where these may be profitably expanded and/or where new methods might be applied. The objective is to make maximum effective use of the best elements in the tourism business environment, and to minimize the worst. Timely and accurate research information is a principal means of achieving these objectives. The focus on this paper is on management and marketing oriented research, because this is the area from which strategic decisions derive.

There is a substantial gap in use and level of sophistication between the available research methodologies and their application to real business and governmental problems. Moreover, this gap appears wider for the tourism industry than for other consumer product areas.

A Problem of Definition

Most traditional industries and economic production sectors are defined in terms of the process of production and/or the physical output, for example, consumer electronics, automobiles, even retailing. Components of tourism are also defined this way. However, because "tourism" is consumer oriented, defined in terms of the consumption of the product, most consumer products and services are to some degree a part of the tourism product. At the same time, most of those commonly identified with tourism, such as hotels, outdoor recreation facilities, parks and the like derive a significant number of their customers from nontourists. The result is that many suppliers of tourist products do not identify themselves with tourism.[1]

A second question lies in defining who is a tourist. This is both a conceptual and a practical issue. On the one hand, it is clear that persons going about their normal daily routines, driving to and from work or the supermarket—while "traveling" in the strictest sense—are not tourists in so far as the travel/tourism market is concerned. On the other hand, it is not difficult to classify a family from Illinois staying for a week at Mackinac Island as tourists. A large more ambiguous group falls between these extremes.

For example, a family from Angola, Indiana, driving to see the state capitol in Lansing and to tour the Michigan State University campus, stopping for lunch and dinner, and purchasing 10 dollars worth of souvenirs clearly are tourists. Yet they would not be included in most definitions, such as the one used by the Census Bureau, because they did not travel at least 100 miles away from home. They would not be counted even if they stayed two nights in a Lansing motel. To a large extent this exclusion is pragmatic grounds: research methodologists commonly used to measure tourist flow are limited.

Tourism organizations need to know who their clients are. Those tourists with an active lifestyle might prefer outdoor activities such as whitewater rafting.

Photo: Buddy Mays, New Mexico Commerce & Industry Department

To further complicate the situation, some definitions of tourists include only those on fully discretionary trips, such as sightseeing or visiting friends and relatives but not those on business or attending conventions. Yet the latter often spend as much of their time and money on discretionary activities as they do on activities relating directly to the official purpose of their trips.

These points underlie many of the potential reasons for the difficulty of applying available research technology to tourism. It is understandably difficult to conduct research on a product for which there is not a reasonably clear and acceptable understanding of its nature, its consumers, and its locus.

Present Status

No serious analysis of the tourism industry in the United States can be undertaken without an awareness of its fragmentation.

Though highly commendable from a marketing perspective, given the concept of defining an industry's product in terms of consumer needs is unusual; furthermore, the

suppliers of this product are extremely heterogeneous. They include government agencies at the national, state and local level, very large corporations, nonprofit private organizations, and a myriad of small businesses. None has a clear mandate or the resources for developing an overall strategy and acquiring an information base needed to develop and market the full tourism product.

Moreover, the U.S. Travel Data Center in 1977 estimated that well over 95% of the businesses that serve the tourism industry are small. Small businesses, individually, seldom have the resources to support significant research programs, often are managed by persons with little knowledge and appreciation of research, and tend to be suspicious of collective information sharing and lack enthusiasm for contributing scarce resources to "pooled" projects with competitors.

Use of the more sophisticated research tools is in the main limited to large private corporations, such as trunk and international airlines, large hotel chains, major recreational attractions, and to some governmental agencies. Although not unique to tourism, it is significant because small businesses dominate important sectors of the industry, especially retail and wholesale. A periodic survey of U.S. businesses by the American Marketing Association, principally directed to firms larger than most travel retailers and wholesalers, shows that formal research functions are substantially less prevalent in retail and wholesale firms.[2]

Causes

Some reasons for the apparent gap between the research and application, when examined in combination, make the gap both predictable and understandable. The dominance of small business in tourism, compared to other industries, probably points to a lower level of applied research. As noted earlier, they usually have neither the resources nor the management predisposition for research; and when work is undertaken, it is likely to be relatively unsophisticated.

Because tourism is a diverse and fragmented industry, and because it is consumer, rather than process/product based, there are neither adequate common forums to develop collectively sponsored research nor sufficiently comprehensive and historically adequate secondary data. Indeed, a major U.S. government source, the Bureau of Census' National Travel Survey (updated every 5 years), has changed methodologies and definitions in each of its last three surveys, and apparently will do so again in 1982.

A related problem is the lack of recognition of the tourism industry by the federal government and by most state governments. The annual research budget of the U.S. Travel and Tourism Administration, for example, is about $100,000 and is limited to only foreign tourism. The U.S. State budgets for tourism related research vary widely, but tend to be similarly inadequate. In 1980–81, according to the U.S. Travel Data Center, they ranged from zero in 21 states to $218,300 in Kentucky.

Proprietary and confidential research is done by many of the large corporations such as airlines and hotel chains. But even here the level and amount of effort frequently is less than for other large consumer businesses. Recent discussions with a former senior marketing executive of a major U.S. based international hotel chain disclosed that little formal marketing research is undertaken. He said candidly that the philosophy of the chief executive officer was that if one can't demonstrate in advance that the research will yield a net increase in profits it should not be done.

A principal force spurring the rapid growth of research in consumer packaged goods and durables since the 1950s has been the maturation of these markets. Increasing competition has been accompanied by slow overall growth in demand. Tourism has enjoyed a period of 20 to 30 years of growth rates two to three times that of overall consumer demand.

In the fast growth stage of a market, suppliers are not under as much pressure to conduct research. Put another way, in a seller's market all the supplier has to do is to avoid any really big mistakes to be at least marginally successful. Energy crises, inflation and deregulation, along with market maturation, however, call for increased research by tourism organizations.

Applications

A reasonable case contends that the tourism industry as a whole makes less use of research than most other industries serving consumers; furthermore, much of the research it does undertake does not employ advanced technology. There are, however, some interesting examples of applied research in tourism.

It will be useful to clarify the term "applied research." Applied research differs from theoretical research in that its purpose is to assist management decision-making. It is only done if the economic gains from the information will more than offset the cost of the research. No value is given for simply expanding the level of knowledge or extending the state of the art, even though such results would be welcomed if they were obtained through serendipity.

Many of the examples are published. Because much interesting work in the private and some from the public sector is proprietary, a few examples are taken from personal experience.

Market Segmentation

Division of markets, or potential markets, into their components based on identifiable attributes has become one of the most valuable concepts in marketing. This concept, called market segmentation, may incorporate one or more sets of attributes, or dimensions, in defining the market components, such as these possible segmentation criteria.

- *Demographics*—age, sex, marital status, income, family size and composition.
- *Life Style*—choice of dwelling type and location, activities engaged in, personal/cultural interests.
- *Psychographics*—attitudes, perceptions, value systems.
- *Geographic*—country, origin, state, city, urban/rural.

Market segmentation permits more effective and cost efficient product development, packaging, promotion, and distribution. It assumes that different segments have different needs, levels of present or potential consumption, different levels of awareness of the product, and exposure to different communication channels.

An interesting example from the private sector is reported by Club Med, Inc., an international chain of resort hotels historically identified with "swinging singles." Research conducted with the J. Walter Thompson Company on redefining Club Med's marketing plan for the 1980s and beyond led to a substantial reorienting of market segmentation strategy.[3]

This research found that the Club Med market shouldn't be defined as swinging singles anymore, or even segmented as singles and couples. For them, more appropriate concepts are "soloists," people who have " . . . chosen a solo lifestyle . . ." and "paired parties," including traditional husband-wife couples but also, ". . . father and son, mother and daughter, two men, two women. . . ." The strategy implications are significantly different than for the former concepts.

The Social Impact

Tourism's impact on residents has received increasing attention. This is partly due to the relationship of host community attitudes toward visitors to the ultimate success of a tourism development program, and partly to the concern that excessive impact will cause irreversible and undesirable changes in the host culture.

A group of the Caribbean Island nations, represented by the Caribbean Tourism Centre, have undertaken research to determine the impact of foreign tourists on their citizens. This research measured financial, moral, religious, social, physical, human and cultural impacts as perceived by the island's residents. Its results are being used to understand how the local population perceives tourists and tourism, and thus to plan a tourism education program effectively, and to plan and develop future tourism.[4]

Resource Management/Recreation

Research in the outdoor recreation and natural/historic resource areas of the tourism industry probably has been the most comprehensive of any in the public record. The U.S. Forest Service has used research heavily. But states and occasionally the private sector also are involved. Because this field has relatively rich literature, a few examples are highlighted.

- A simulation model has been developed to evaluate visitor flow management in park and wilderness areas.[5]
- Factor analysis of the data from an outdoor recreation participation survey conducted by the State of Indiana was used to evaluate new recreation area development.[6]
- A benefit/cost analysis model has been developed to use with survey methods to evaluate public policy/program/project options.[7]
- A manual for small private campground management has been prepared based on case study analysis.[8]

These examples suggest some of the types of research being done, and they indicate that the general level of sophistication here is closer to the state of the art in theoretical research.

Facilities Development and Marketing

Most of the research related to tourism facilities in the U.S. is in the private domain and therefore not publicly reported. There are, however, some interesting reported research studies. As a research objective was discussed earlier, one use of market segmentation data is in designing and locating new resort facilities. Reime and Hawkins report on the application of psychographic research to this use.[9] Research identified a continuum of traveler groups in terms of traveler objectives and needs. At the two extremes are the "allocentric," one who seeks out the off-the-beaten-path destination more or less undiscovered by tourists, and the "psychocentric," one who wants nothing unexpected, stays totally within the destination tourism plan, and spends most of his time in simple activities. There are of course several groups between extremes.

A variety of techniques are used to analyze the feasibility of specific sites for prospective hotels, restaurants, and resorts which have high initial capital costs. Many are proprietary and largely confidential. One applied on an experimental basis to a proposed new resort/marina complex employed regression analysis and several site specific and regional variables.[10] Work on this approach has continued with some success.

Benefit/Cost Evaluation

The "I Love New York" promotional campaign has been widely noted, both because of its relatively large expenditures and because of its success. What may be less well known is that it was based on extensive consumer research.[11] Moreover, this research has been followed by periodic tracking studies to measure the effectiveness of the program and to adjust strategy. These New York studies involved both geographic and psychographic market segmentation, trip volume measures, travel party composition, and behavioral analysis.

Transportation

Transportation research, though mostly proprietary, probably has been among the most sophisticated in the private sector. There also are many public or quasi-public sponsored projects. Airlines may have been the heaviest users in the private sector, although some work has been reported by bus and cruise lines.

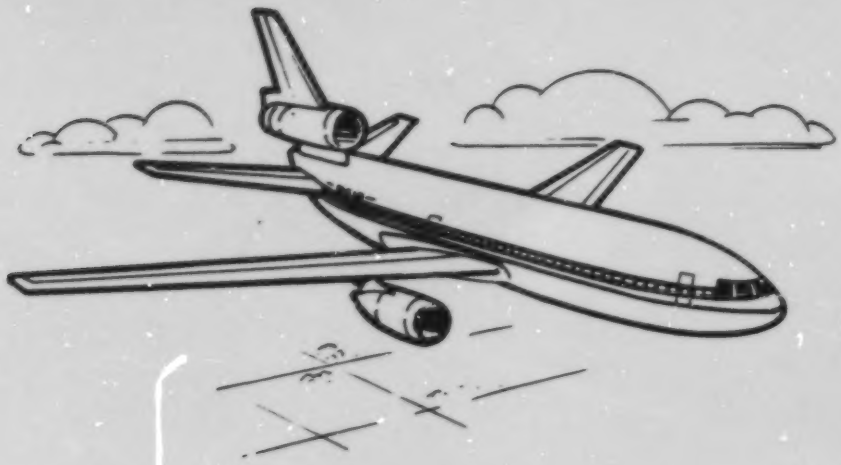
American Airlines vice president for research, Earl E. Ditmars (1980), provided an interesting insight to his company's research program.[12] He stated that during the first half of 1980 the research department had conducted 23 special projects, not including regularly scheduled inflight passenger surveys. These included a study of their inflight special promotion, evaluation of the company's Los Angeles reservations office, and analysis of a proposed inflight advertising program on movie flights. No details were provided, but it is probable that most involved consumer passenger surveys.

Ditmars offered what may be an important guide to the use of research by many travel related businesses. He noted that their ". . . turnaround time in market research activity is frequently one week from close out to the final report." In many cases the entire project, from start to final report is done in two weeks. Given his high-pressure environment, it would be understandable if less effort is focused on long term, indepth research.

Transportation research also is carried out by other sectors of the industry. Part of a larger comprehensive tourism study for the Caribbean Tourism Research Centre, one recent project produced a detailed analysis of direct air transport supply (seats) between all North American/Caribbean city pairs, and between U.S. and Canadian ports of exit and Caribbean countries. This included study of restrictions in bilateral agreements, and daily, monthly and quarterly flight density analysis.[1]

Applied research to guide management planning, decision-making, and program evaluation is being carried out in all parts of the tourism industry. However, there is a greater gap between available technology and its use in most parts of this field than in other consumer serving industries, both in quality and quantity.

If there is to be more relevant research, on whom will the increased responsibility for it fall? Larger business organizations will attend to their particular needs themselves.



Small business problems will in part be resolved through attrition and mergers.

Over the past several years, the industry expected the federal government to shoulder much of the research load, but there is at this point no reason to be sanguine about the U.S. Travel and Tourism Administration or any other agency being given a comparable mission or resources. State and local public agencies will have to provide the leadership, and at least a significant part of the resources; most still provide inadequate or no research support for tourism. The U.S. Travel Data Center, 1981 report stated that only 13 states reported research budgets of $25,000 or more; Michigan reported none.

Rather than a pessimistic outlook for tourism in the years ahead, accepting the challenge will provide benefits in employment, tax revenues and profits.

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Marketing Tourism

Daniel J. Stynes

Any organization, whether public or private, profit or nonprofit, must understand the makeup of its market to provide products and services that meet client needs and wants. Most recreation and tourism organizations service a variety of different clientele groups. These organizations can generally be more effective if they target their marketing efforts toward a limited number of well-defined market segments.

Market segmentation is a management stragegy based upon assumptions about the behavior of population subgroups. This strategy entails adjusting a product or service, as well as its price, promotion, and distribution to meet the needs and wants of discrete target market segments. Market segmentation is almost universally accepted as a strategy within marketing and there is a wealth of both theoretical and applied research on the subject.[1]

Tatham and Dornoff[2] introduced segmentation to recreation a decade ago, but only a handful of published studies have followed. LaPage[3] and later Crompton[4] have helped diffuse general marketing techniques to recreation businesses and public recreation agencies. Tourism, more closely associated with the business community, has made greater use of marketing and market segmentation.

Market Segmentation

A market segmentation strategy is predicated upon four basic assumptions about the market.

- The market is composed of different consumers or clients with distinct needs, preferences, and responses to marketing.
- These different clients can be identified and grouped into a number of relatively homogeneous and distinguishable market segments.
- Since different segments have distinct needs and preferences, a single offering, service, or market approach will not equally satisfy all groups.
- Organizations can increase the effectiveness and efficiency of their marketing by designing offerings that appeal to specific market segments.

Not all markets can benefit from segmentation. In some cases consumer preferences may be fairly homogeneous, or the market may be too small to serve special subgroups. However, most markets and most tourism organizations will benefit from a segmentation strategy.

How to Cut a Multidimensional Pie

Four general categories of segmentation variables have been advanced by market researchers: (1) socioeconomic, (2) product-related (3) psychographic, and (4) geographic. Variables for segmenting tourism markets are listed in Table 1 within each of these general categories. With only a couple of exceptions in the product-related category, these are the same variables that have proven successful in segmenting markets for toothpaste, beer, automobiles, and birth control devices.

Although one may segment a market on virtually any variable, not all segmentations will prove useful. For a given segmentation to be useful, the segments must be

substantial—the segments must be sufficiently large or important to justify special attention;

identifiable—the segments must be recognizable so that appeals or offerings may be directed to the segment;

exploitable—the segments must differ in their needs, preferences, or responses to marketing in such a way that they may be profitably exploited.

The decision of which variables to use in segmenting a market is complex. No single variable or set of variables can be applied uniformly across all product markets or all marketing applications. Consumer segments that proved useful in selling light beer or convertible cars may be of little use in tourism market applications. Variables of use in segmenting the camping market may or may not be helpful in segmenting the downhill ski or vacation travel markets. In spite of these cautions, general guidelines for segmenting recreation or tourism markets can be given.

I. *Socioeconomic and Demographic*	II. *Product-Related*
Age	Recreation activity
Education	Equipment type
Sex	Volume of use
Income	Brand loyalty
Family size	Benefit expectations
Family life cycle	Length of stay
Social class	Transportation mode
Home ownership	Experience preferences
Second home ownership	Participation patterns
Race or ethnic group	
Occupation	
III. *Psychographic*	**IV. *Geographic***
Personality traits	Region
Lifestyle	Market area
Attitudes, Interests, Opinions (AIO)	Urban, suburban, rural
Motivations	City size
	Population density
	Travel distance

Table 1. Recreation and Tourism Market Segmentation Bases

Socioeconomic Segments

Socioeconomic and demographic segmentations (often referred to as SEDs) underlie a great deal of tourism marketing. Family campgrounds, singles bars, budget motels, men's clubs, and cultural tours are designed to appeal to particular subgroups defined by age, gender, income, marital status, occupation, education, or ethnic background. Discount pricing and advertising appeals are often aimed at socioeconomic segments.

There are several reasons why socioeconomic segmentations are widely used. These variables are easy to measure and are often closely related to consumer tastes and consumption patterns. Age and income, for example, have traditionally been the best predictors of participation in recreation activities. Socioeconomic segments are easy to identify, understand, and use in a particular marketing decision.

A manager using socioeconomic variables to segment a market will find a great deal of supporting data, such as population censuses and forecasts. Market surveys generally identify the preferences, values, attitudes, media habits, and behavior patterns of different socioeconomic groups and can be used in conjunction with socioeconomic segments to design marketing programs.

Sometimes simply dividing the market along a single socioeconomic variable will produce useful segments. For example, an organization might target its offerings and appeals to a particular age, income, or educational group. By combining two or more socioeconomic variables, more specific segments can be identified. Working women, young marrieds, and childless couples are segments formed using two variables. Two socioeconomic segmentations useful in tourism are based upon status and the family life cycle. Status groups use measures of education, occupation, and income. Family life cycle stages are based upon age, marital status, and the number and ages of children living at home.

A segmentation of Michigan boaters using the life cycle concept is illustrated in Table 2. The life cycle stage is closely related to disposable income, age, home ownership patterns, the purchase of durable goods,[5] and participation in entertainment activities.[6] These results recommend life cycle segmentation for many different recreation and tourism product and service markets.

There are often unique attributes of recreation or tourism products that prove useful segmentation bases. Product-related segments offer the advantage of being *directly* related to the product, but the disadvantage of not being generalizable across product classes. Managers usually find product-related segments identifiable and relatively straightforward to exploit.

Product-related Segments

Product-related segmentations in recreation and tourism have been based upon four categories of variables: (1) participation in recreation activities; (2) frequency or volume of use; (3) equipment ownership; and (4) attributes or benefits sought in tourism products or experiences.

Although there is a large body of research on the formation of recreation activity packages or clusters, most has not been applied to marketing. Michigan has identified six activity-based travel market segments to guide its statewide tourism promotion. Tourists were grouped into young sports, winter/water, sightseer, outdoorsman, resort, and nightlife types.[7] Recreation activity segments are particularly useful in targeting appeals or designing appropriate facilities at tourist destinations.

Much recreation and tourism activity is linked to equipment. Equipment-based segmentations are useful not only to product manufacturers and retailers, but also to site managers who must design facilities and services to accommodate the requirements of recreational equipment.

Dividing campers into tent and vehicle segments, and cross-country skiers into those using waxless or waxable skis, are further examples of equipment-based segments. Use of these segments should increase with increasing product differentiation and specialization.

In attribute or benefit segmentation, markets are divided according to differences in the attributes or benefits a consumer is seeking in a tourism product or experience. Benefit segmentation has been advanced by Haley[9] and Barnett[10] in marketing, and has been applied in recreation and tourism to downhill skiing,[8] fishing,[11] cross-country skiing,[12] and international travel markets.[13]

Attribute segments identified in the study of Michigan downhill skiers[8] included quality and price-conscious groups. The quality-conscious segment selected a resort for an overnight ski trip based upon the quality of slopes, restaurants, and lodging facilities. In contrast, the price-conscious segments looked for low prices and after-ski entertainment. The quality-conscious group consisted

Segment	Market Share (percent)	Age	Income	Years of Education	Household Size	Children Under 12	Description
Young childless households	12	30	21,000	13	2.6	0.0	Childless households HOH under 40 years old
Young Families	19	33	24,000	14	4.2	1.8	HOH under 40, one or more children under 12
Intermediate Families	7	47	25,000	14	4.8	1.4	HOH age 40–60, one or more children under 12
Older Families	20	49	26,000	13	3.9	0.0	HOH age 40–60, children, none under 12
Empty Nesters I	18	54	22,000	13	1.8	0.0	HOH age 40–60, no children at home
Empty Nesters II	24	68	14,000	12	2.0	0.0	HOH over 60, no children at home

Table 2. Family Life Cycle Segments for Michigan Registered Boaters

mostly of high income skiers, while students made up most of the price-conscious segment. Different ski area offerings, pricing strategies, and promotions attract members of these two segments.

Benefit segmentation is an attractive basis for segmenting recreation and tourism markets, since consumers often seek distinct experiences in their recreation and travel and use products or services for different purposes. Benefit segments are usually less complex to develop than psychographic segments and more straightforward to apply to a particular marketing problem.

Psychographic Segments

Psychographic classifications of consumers are based upon personality, attitudes, interests, and opinions (AIO). This type of research is fairly prominent in recreation and tourism as illustrated in the following article by Woodside and Jacobs.

Wells[14] reviews the status of psychographic research in marketing. Within recreation and tourism, lifestyle segments have been developed for recreation vehicle campers,[15] vacation package tour design,[16] and airline marketing.[17] The latter divides travelers into psychocentric and allocentric market segments. The psychocentric traveler seeks familiar environments and security while the allocentric segments looks for new and different experiences and is willing to take risks. Reime and Hawkins[18] define segments that fall in between these two extremes.

Psychographic segmentation is generally more difficult to conduct than either socioeconomic or product-related segmentation. It is usually applied in more highly developed markets where it may give the marketer an edge over organizations employing simpler segmentations. Psychographic approaches clearly have great potential in recreation and tourism, where consumers may be more responsive to psychological appeals than more direct promotions. The use of psychographics should increase as recreation and tourism marketing becomes more highly developed.

Geographic Segments

The most common use of geographic segmentation in recreation and tourism is defining distinct market areas and designing marketing strategies to serve them. Spatial mapping of product images is becoming increasingly popular in tourism,[19] although it is more commonly used in product positioning than in market segmentation. The importance of distance, location, and spatial relationships between tourism origins and destinations suggests that geographic segmentations could be more widely applied in recreation and tourism.

Applying Market Segmentation

Once a market has been divided into distinct segments, an organization selects one or more target segments. Deciding which segment to serve must be based upon an evaluation of the firm's objectives, resources, and market position. A successful organization will select identifiable, substantial, and exploitable segments. It will identify segments that are not adequately served or segments that it can serve more effectively or efficiently than its competition. Both the benefits and costs of serving a given segment must be considered along with likely future changes in market shares or conditions.

After selecting a target market segment or segments, a comprehensive marketing program is tailored to the needs, wants, and characteristics of each target segment. This program normally includes product, pricing, promotion, and distribution strategies for each segment. An excellent application of this process is provided in the following article by Woodside and Jacobs.

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Developing Tourism Management Strategies

Arch G. Woodside Laurence W. Jacobs

Most state and provincial governments now formally recognize the substantial economic impact of tourism on employment, revenue, and tax income for a state, province, or region. This recognition is a recent phenomenon. Government agencies given the written responsibility of developing marketing and advertising programs to attract visitors are a phenomena of the past decade. Prior to 1968, few states or provinces were developing formal marketing and advertising programs for tourism. They were unconcerned about their market share of tourists and other travelers.

The recent planning and execution of marketing and advertising programs and the concern with market shares have increased the need for market information. Who are your state's, province's, or region's travelers and tourists? How long do they visit? What are their primary activities? How much money do they spend? How sensitive is this market to changes in marketing variables (for example, new attractions, advertising campaigns, highways or airline routes)? To answer such questions, most states and provinces are recognizing the need for a formal research program to measure market profiles of their visitors on an annual basis. The next decade is likely to include the creation of a full-time market research analyst in most state and province divisions of tourism. (Presently, we estimate that less than 10 states and provinces in the United States and Canada have such a research analyst position or conduct annual studies of their travelers and tourists.)

This article analyzes and compares the results of research on the market profiles of travelers to states in two different U.S. regional areas to highlight the need for and marketing management implications of a market information program. Socioeconomic-demographic (SED), psychographic, media habits, and travel behavior of tourists visiting Hawaii and South Carolina are examined.

Hawaii and South Carolina Travel Industries

The travel and tourism industries of Hawaii and South Carolina have several similarities. Both industries had revenues of slightly more than $1 billion in 1975. In revenue the industries are close seconds to other industries in both states, that is, federal spending in Hawaii and textiles in South Carolina. Both states are located in the Sun Belt. Vacation travelers to both states are likely to go to the beaches during their visits. The state governments in both states have established tourism marketing programs and market information systems.

Despite these similarities, market profiles of tourists to the two states show several differences. Visitors are likely to tour Hawaii for a greater length of time than visitors who tour South Carolina. Substantial numbers of South Carolina visitors *pass through* the state to reach Florida for their vacation. Nearly all Hawaii visitors are likely to have Hawaii as their primary vacation destination.

Table 1. Summary of Vacation Market Profiles by Travel Behavior, Psychographics, and Media Habits

Profile Characteristic	Hawaii	South Carolina
Travel Behavior		
Destinations	Substantial segment (30%) beyond U.S. and Canada	U.S. and Canada
Visit to state welcome center in 1976	No	Yes
Professional travel assistance	Likely for nearly half	Likely for a third
Number of vacation trips in 1976	3 or more	2 to 3
Psychographics		
Word-of-mouth on vacations	Opinion Leader	Opinion Leader
Trip planning	Likely to use professional help. Makes reservations before trip.	Relies on travel magazines. Will seek historical places.
Credit	Has charge accounts. Uses traveler checks.	Has charge accounts. Uses traveler checks.
Business travel	Often by air	Unlikely to be business air traveler
Outdoors	Small segment of campers	Large segment of campers
Travel activities	Many trips likely. Unlikely to return year after year.	Many trips likely. Unlikely to return year after year.

Table 2. Summary Marketing Strategies for Tourism Marketing for Hawaii and South Carolina

Marketing Decision	Hawaii	South Carolina
Market segment	West Coast of U.S. Adult Upscale	Mid-Atlantic Midwest Family Middle Class
Promotion appeals	Relaxation, Beaches Dining	Camping, Beaches History
Media	Business and news magazines	Shelter and other magazines
Publicity	Travel agents	Motor Clubs
Pricing	Quality Image Package Plans	Economy
Key channel components	Airlines and air routes	Highway systems Gasoline
Product	Beaches Mountains Culture Natural scenery	Beaches Camp facilities Historical sites Gardens

Several psychographic and SED differences are likely to exist between visitors to the two states. Visiting "paradise in the Pacific" may attract the more romantic, excitement-oriented traveler, while visiting a South Atlantic state may attract the family-oriented traveler of the middle social class. The differences in market profiles are summarized in Table 1.

Photo: Kiawah Island Company

Despite a travel and tourism industry similar to Hawaii's, South Carolina's accessibility makes it more likely to attract families. This family has rented bicycles to tour Kiawah Island, S.C.

Tourism Marketing Implications

Based on the market profiles examined, unique marketing programs would be proposed for Hawaii and South Carolina. Comparing the two market profiles suggests different attractions, activities, media, promotional appeals, pricing, and transportation channels. Summary strategies as suggested bases for building more specific marketing plans are given in Table 2.

A four-step sequence is suggested for use by tourism marketing management: (1) developing a marketing information system (MIS); (2) examining market profiles; (3) selecting market segments; and (4) deciding on the specific marketing mix (product, pricing, promotion, and channel).

1	2	3	4
marketing information system (MIS)	market profiles	select market	marketing mix

Figure 1. Four Step Management Sequence

This sequence is followed in reverse too often with the MIS used to try to confirm unsubstantiated management beliefs about the market profiles.

It is time for MIS's to become integral to tourism management programs. Travel research should be an annual line budget item in state and province divisions of tourism. Tourism managers should use an MIS with longitudinal research, including annual surveys and panel diaries, as early opportunity and warning systems to spot changes in market characteristics as well as market shares of different segments.

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Section VI

Christine Z. Howe, Ph.D.
Evaluation
(October 1980)

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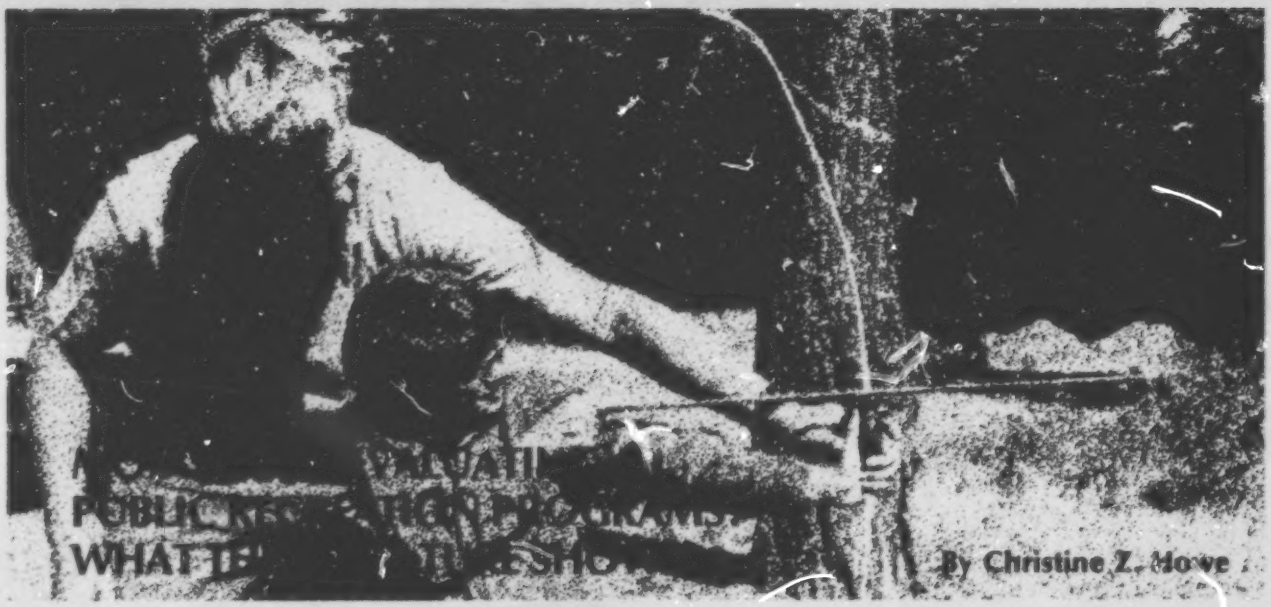
There are as many different definitions of evaluation as there are purposes for evaluation. Beyond that, there are a number of evaluation designs or models, each of which has various methodologies or techniques to carry out the necessary steps to completing the evaluation process. However, there is one thing that all evaluation has in common. Evaluation is a process of systematic inquiry for decision situations; it is the judgment of merit or worth of some phenomenon based on some kind of criteria.

—Christine Howe
Editor



WHAT IS

By Christine Z. Howe

In terms of theoretical models, there are numerous types of evaluation approaches available to pick and choose from today. However, the choices become much more narrow when recounting the types of evaluation approaches that either have been or currently are being used in the field of parks, recreation, and leisure services. The choices become even more limited if evaluation is examined as a managerial tool to increase accountability in leisure and recreational programming. That is the way in which evaluation is discussed here, as a managerial technique to use to revise, improve, and justify leisure and recreational programs in an era of declining fiscal resources. Within this focus, the leisure programming cycle is briefly reviewed.

Leisure Programming Cycle

The recreation or leisure programming cycle begins with the assessment of client needs and interests. This kind of preliminary data gathering may take several forms. Some agencies conduct sophisticated surveys through interviews or questionnaires. Other organizations seek informal information from participants at the end of a program. Others rely on the observations, intuition, or experience of the professional staff. Some use citizen's advisory boards to glean "representative" opinions about programs. Without regard to what means are used to determine constituent needs and interests, the important thing is that the assessment is made. The key to this phase is to systematically record information about the constituents' leisure attitudes, needs, and interests and to use, not shelve the results. Using such data will help to broaden the much needed base of support for recreational programs.

The second phase of the cycle is the planning or development of the recreational program. There are operational aspects of the planning phase that sound evaluative techniques can assist: the gathering and storing of demographic and attitudinal information, past evaluation record keeping and report reading, participation rate information, personnel time budgets, and accounts of income and expenditures for programs. These data allow for factually based decision-making.

Following the development of the recreational program is its implementation. This is the actual provision of the leisure experience to the public. If the evaluation of a program occurs during the actual conduct of the program, then it is a formative evaluation. Formative evaluation occurs while the program is still in progress for the improvement and revision of the program. If the evaluation occurs after the completion of the recreational program, then it is summative. Summative evaluation is the final judgment of merit or worth of a program. The type of evaluation used depends on which evaluative purpose is desired. But when one is concerned about accountability, it is wise to evaluate both formatively and summatively to provide the depth of data that is increasingly being demanded for the justification of programs and program expenditures. The last phase of the cycle is to modify the program based on these previously mentioned considerations. The programming cycle is marked by its ongoing, continuous nature.

A recreational program is an experience for either an individual or a group of people. Therefore, in evaluating, judgments must be made by systematically searching out the answer to the evaluative questions that the agency holds to be important. Because it is the question that is of the utmost importance, and because the questions vary among agencies, there are a variety of evaluation approaches.

Accountability

Before turning to these various types of evaluation strategies that are currently being used upon recreational programs, accountability needs further explanation. As with the other human services, recreation experienced a renaissance in the 1960s. With the arrival of the 1970s, however, the mood changed. A mandate was given to recreation and other human services to demonstrate that the good works that they were proposing to do were indeed good works! The aspirations of the leisure service workers were no longer sufficient to justify continued financial support. Thus, accountability has extended to the general public, whether they are directly involved with the agency or not. Recreators are now in the position of having to account for and/or

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justify their programs in terms of their worth. It is in judging the merit or worth of such programs that evaluation has entered the accountability scene in parks, recreation and leisure services (Connolly, 1979).

Approaches to Evaluating Leisure Programs

Although there are a variety of definitions of evaluation, basically evaluation is the judgment of merit or worth of a program involving some kind of audience or group to whom the evaluation is directed. The process of evaluation takes place in the real world and uses social science research techniques particularly for the collection, analysis, and interpretation of information. It is suggested that those evaluation approaches that use multiple research techniques provide more in-depth information (Bullock & Coffey, 1979).

No matter what specific evaluation approach is used, there is a basic way of thinking that underlies the evaluation process. The process of evaluation follows the kind of rational decision-making of the scientific method, and as such is a systematic approach to solving applied problems (Connolly, 1979). Therefore, it is incumbent upon the staff to determine what questions they want answered with regard to their leisure programs. Then the choice of what evaluation approach to employ is made.

Olson (1978) reviewed the models for the evaluation of recreational programs that have been in the literature for some time. Among these approaches are Hatry and Dunn's 1971 model and van der Smissen's 1972 work. Both of these methods fall under the evaluation by standards category. Dunn and Hatry's measures of recreation program effectiveness examine attendance, accessibility, crowdedness, the nature of the experience being offered, safety, and other related factors. Implicit in their work is that recreation programs may be related to the reduction of certain social problems. However, this type of relationship is not empirically established in their paper. As a matter of fact, Dunn and Hatry caution the reader about the tentative nature of the implied relationships (Olson, 1978, pp. 6-7). Thus, there are some limitations in trying to evaluate by making comparisons to predetermined standards when it is desired to look toward recreation as a means of reducing social ills.

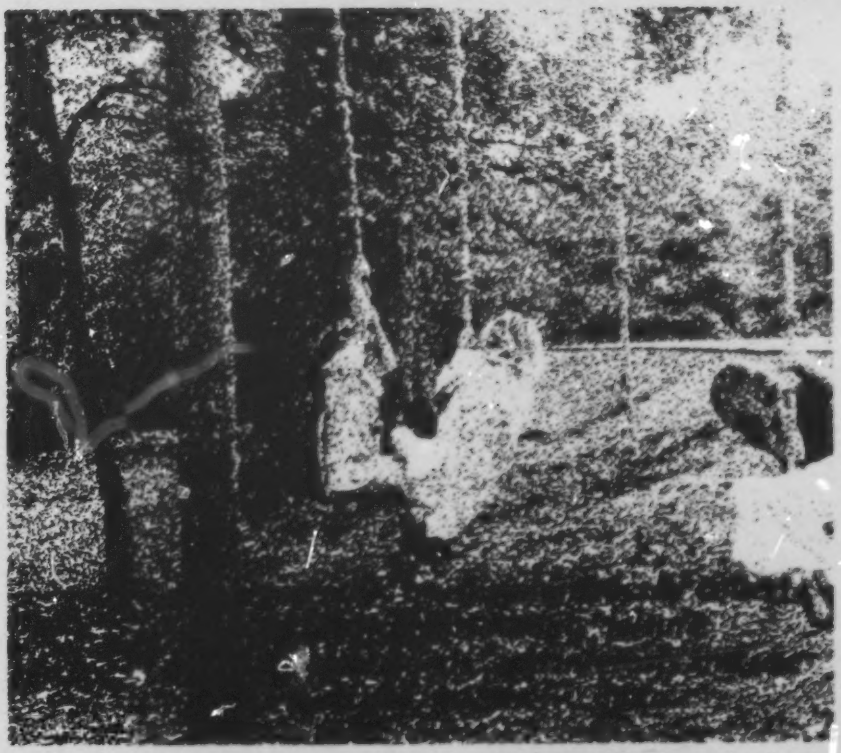
Van der Smissen also advocated the use of predetermined standards as a means of evaluating programs. Her study manual allows the nonresearch oriented practitioner to clarify the role of the administrator and the agency and to systematically collect information over a brief period of time and at a minimum of expense; if the standards are adhered to, it is suggested that the programs will be effective (Olson, 1978, pp. 2-5). Sometimes, however, the "minimum standards" become the maximum. Also, there are some situation specific aspects of programming that this type of evaluation approach misses. Beyond that, a single evaluator may not realistically be exposed to all of the phenomena which require judgment as listed in van der Smissen's manual.

It was Joseph J. Bannon, in 1976, in his book *Leisure Resources: Its Comprehensive Planning*, who first included a chapter titled "Evaluation of the Delivery of Leisure Systems" recounting the evaluation approaches that educators and sociologists developed throughout the 1960s and early 1970s. Some of the major approaches are outlined in Figure 1.

Figure 1: A Taxonomy of Models for Educational Program Evaluation[1]

APPROACH	MODELS	PURPOSE	PROPONENTS	METHODOLOGY	RESULTS	PROBLEMS
Evaluation as Professional Judgment	ART CRITICISM MODEL	Approval of a program	Eisner, 1975	Critical review by individual	Subjective appraisal of product	Diversity of reviews
	ACCREDITATION BLUE RIBBON PANEL MODELS	Those with experience and/or training judge programs	NCA Henry, 1975	Critical review by visiting panel, interviews, self study and observation	Professional/peer acceptance	Disagreement on who is "expert" and criteria
Evaluation as Measurement	SYSTEMS-MANAGEMENT ANALYSIS MODELS	Rational decision making, quantitative outcome measures	Rivlin, 1971 Burnham, 1973	PPBS, MBO, cost benefit analysis, statistical treatments, head counts	Efficiency, feedback for decision making	Nonhumanistic, overlooks values, emphasis on quantification
Evaluation As Congruence Between Performance and Objectives	BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES EVALUATION MODELS	Behavior specified into measurable performance	Tyler, 1950 Popham, 1969 Provus, 1973	Statements of behavioral objectives and criterion referenced tests	Productivity, accountability	Disagreement on criteria and measures of achievement
Decision-oriented Evaluation	DECISION MAKING MODELS	Decisions to be made form basis of policy to be developed	Alkin, 1967 Stufflebeam, 1970	Surveys, questionnaires, interviews and document analysis	Effectiveness, quality control, social choices	Neglects minority interests
Goal Free Evaluation	GOAL FREE EVALUATION MODEL	Reduction of effects of bias in program evaluation	Scriven, 1973	Logical analysis and observation	Client choice, minimal co-optation	Psychological discomfort of those involved
Transaction-Observation Evaluation	TRANSACTION-OBSERVATION EVALUATION MODELS	Portrayal of what has occurred	Stake, 1973 MacDonald, 1977 Parlett & Hamilton, 1972	Observation case-study interviews and participant-observation	Understanding of picture, diverse views	Unfamiliarity with qualitative methods.

[1]From Howe (1978).



These strategies may most certainly be borrowed by recreators. Some of them are in use already as shown in the discussion of the programming cycle. Leisure service providers have all in the past relied upon expert judgment. We just need to systematize it, as suggested in Figure 1. Some agencies have instituted systems such as planning, programming, budgeting systems (PPBS) and management by objectives (MBO). Many therapeutic recreators use behavioral objectives in evaluating the impact of their services on clients. Policies are formed through the data collected by leisure opinionnaires as the decision-making models suggest. Goal-free and transaction-observation evaluation are two of the newest categories that need further testing.

Two recreation evaluators who have gone beyond the numbers games, the post hoc review, and the rating form approach are Nolan and Olson. Nolan (1978) developed and tested an evaluation model that examines the input, process, and outcomes of recreational programs. In input she addresses the operational questions of cost, publicity, labor, etc. In process Nolan describes what actually occurred at the program. In outcome Nolan compares program goals with performance as indicated by participant satisfaction. In order to do this, Nolan suggests involving participants and the staff and possibly even an outsider (pp. 40-1). Nolan has gone beyond just calling for evaluation by actually constructing forms on which the recreation supervisor may record the data required to answer the input, process, and outcome questions. Forms, methods, and concrete procedures—that is what is needed in the literature in order to use evaluation to improve, revise, and justify programs. The theory must be put into practice and the practice into print.

Olson (1978) braved the transaction-observation category to use systematic observations of recreation programs to portray participant satisfaction through a journalistic type of narrative. He also carefully describes his procedures, thus enabling others to replicate his method. Olson even suggests possible observational tools: photographs, videotapes, and audiotapes (p. 182). He emphasizes that what should be looked for are transactions or the interaction of people with people and people with things.

Finally, there are some steps that are basic to evaluation. These include: deciding what the *purpose* of the evaluation is and/or what evaluation questions to ask; determining the *audience* of the evaluation or for whom the evaluation is to be done; deciding upon the evaluation *subquestions* to answer the primary evaluation concern; finding out what *resources* are available to conduct the evaluation; choosing the *evidence* or information to collect to answer the subquestions; figuring out the pros and cons of the various ways to *collect* the information that is needed; determining how to *analyze* the data that are gathered; and devising a way to *report* the results (Howe, 1978).

Conclusion

It is apparent there are several current models for evaluation that have been developed and used outside the field of leisure. There are only a few that have been either adapted from the outside or developed from within that are reported as being currently in use. Unfortunately, many of these reports stop with just indicating the need for evaluation. Recreators are all aware of the need for evaluation. Now, the actual processes used must be described so that others may use them. Finally, evaluation can be used as a tool for accountability during these difficult times.

In keeping with the theme of this article is the following quote:

> A good evaluation should be able to display descriptive data of the program's activities, cost, impact and possibly predict some aspects of the future course of the program. However, even a good evaluation cannot provide a definitive picture of the future, reduce the costs of goods and services, or decide which course of action is the most desirable (Connolly, 1979 pp. 7-8).

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...GRADUATE MAJOR

By Ken Mobily and Seppo Iso-...

Judgment and decision-making are perhaps the most difficult tasks for the administrator or manager. The recreation professional, like other professionals involved in public service, is expected to make well-informed, competent decisions. To assist in this end, the manager seeks reliable and valid information on which to base judgments and decisions. One advantage to gathering reliable and valid data is that as the amount of data one has available increases so do the number of alternatives. An additional benefit of such information is that it can be used to confirm or refute the feasibility of identified alternatives. The results of assessment and evaluation cannot make decisions for the administrator, but the information gained through surveys, physical accessibility studies, interviews, or various other techniques can provide valuable data to help the manager choose the best course of action. Thus the administrator seeks evidence to confirm or refute the alternatives at hand.

An issue that focuses increased importance on the evaluation of leisure services is accountability. The accountability movement mandates competence from those entrusted with public funds (Teague, 1979). Accountability should be welcomed and not feared. Constituents have every right to expect nothing less than the highest levels of competence, responsibility, and accountability from their officials. Accordingly, part of the proper decision-making process involves the gathering and analysis of data so that well-informed judgments may be made. The time of relying upon intuition has passed, and judgments based upon factual information are needed.

It is clear that if institutions of higher learning produce graduates without competence in data gathering and evaluation techniques, they too might come under the critical eye of the accountability movement. Higher educators need to take affirmative steps to assure that their students master basic evaluation techniques. These steps should not be motivated by fear of scrutiny, but out of realization that engendering competence in graduates is the moral trust of institutions of higher learning.

It should be quite clear that evaluation skills are needed by recreation graduates. One must then review the field of evaluation, specifically evaluation of leisure services, to establish the appropriate content for undergraduate courses. The review process is most crucial because it identifies pertinent information and helps the instructor keep up to date on current measurement and evaluation developments.

Most leisure educators would admit that much of the content in leisure education is gleaned from other fields of study, such as psychology, sociology, and physical education. Recreation, however, is in the process of using this "borrowed" information to create a new body of knowledge that encompasses many fields of study under a new perspective. Also, in evaluating leisure services, evaluation tools used by other fields are applied in the recreation setting. Critics should not, however, be too quick to condemn this practice, since many fields glean information and borrow techniques from other fields.

Surveys have been the focus of a great deal of criticism, some of it warranted, some not. Even so, they are still widely used and students should be taught the proper methods of administering them. When learning survey techniques, students need to be cognizant of the weaknesses inherent to survey research. Emphasis should be placed on issues such as reliability, validity, question construction, scaling techniques, and sampling. Far too often those responsible for poor surveys have been so flagrant in their misuse of survey techniques that all surveys have been labeled as worthless.

If the leisure profession is going to continue using survey techniques as part of the evaluation process, future professionals in the recreation field should be taught correct techniques as part of their professional preparation program. Actually, survey techniques offer practicality and feasibility at relatively little expense, and few evaluation techniques can deliver as much raw information as a survey.

Appropriate research techniques relevant to surveys and other data gathering techniques should be integrated into the evaluation course. Far too often evaluation findings are pronounced "significant" with little concern for control situations. The problem is that without a control group one has no way of knowing whether the observed changes

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were a result of treatment or mere chance. To avoid these problems, subjects should not only be chosen randomly in the first place, but should also be assigned randomly to one or more treatment groups and a control group. By using a control group the evaluator can more validly assume that changes were due to treatment and not circumstance.

For example, a recreation administrator may be considering the purchase of a substantial amount of creative playground equipment. One criterion, or measure of interest, might be the amount of time children spend at the playground. (Of course, many criteria might be measured.) To establish whether or not more time is spent at creative playgrounds than at traditional playgrounds, the investigator would have to establish two groups. First, the investigator might randomly select a sample of playgrounds from the population of playgrounds within a certain jurisdiction. Second, the treatment (the creative playground) might be randomly assigned to one-half of the playgrounds, and creative playground equipment would then be installed at these playgrounds, designated as the treatment group. The balance of the playgrounds selected from the population but not receiving the treatment, i.e., traditional playgrounds, would be the control group. After collecting information relative to the amount of time children spent at traditional versus creative playgrounds, the recreation administrator could judge whether or not the purchase of creative playground equipment would be warranted. (A source of additional pertinent information on research techniques is Kerlinger, 1973.

While some research techniques have been borrowed from other fields, recreation is not totally without its unique evaluation tools. An example here is Staley's (1969) comparative priority of need index (CPN). This relatively simple technique used data transformation to assign C-scores to neighborhoods or city areas on the basis of identified and recreation resources. By subtracting need from resources one can compare neighborhoods or areas when making subsequent resource allocation decisions. For additional information on CPN and C-scores the reader should consult Staley (1969) and Guilford (1973) on these topics.

Unfortunately, few recreation administrators have been resourceful or creative enough to meet the need for more evaluation instruments unique to the recreation field. The demand for such techniques is undoubtedly present in light of the current emphasis on accountability. Researchers, educators, and practitioners alike have an obligation to the recreation profession as well as their respective constituencies to create suitable techniques for use in evaluating leisure services.

The young professional in recreation and leisure service must be competent and accountable, and that means they must have a thorough grasp of evaluative techniques.

Just as instrumentation and methodology should be considered in the course content of an evaluation of leisure services class, so too should statistics. To this end, each educator must determine what statistical skills are appropriate and necessary to the job placement situations as they presently exist. The following is what these writers believe should be included about statistics in an undergraduate course in evaluating leisure services.

A descriptive statistics emphasis is warranted for undergraduates because comparing relative percentages and frequencies is the most basic form of statistical testing. An understanding of one- and two-way frequency distributions is useful to the novice. In addition, indices of location (mean, median, mode) and indices of variability (mean deviation, variance, standard deviation) should be learned by the students. These indices can then be used as a basis for comparison between and within groups. The normal curve distribution should be covered relative to percentile and percentile rank, which again serves as a basis for comparing between and among groups.

Data presentation techniques (cross tabulations, graphs, tables) should be covered in terms of conventions commonly used to display data in logical and systematic fashion. Data presentation facilitates the evaluation of data in a sequential manner. In addition, good data presentation techniques are seen as significantly influencing the impressions given to those examining the evaluation project. Neat, concise, and logical graphs, tables, and other data displays reflect upon the author in a positive manner, transmitting an image of competence to the reader.

In teaching the evaluation of leisure services the instructor is obligated not to promote evaluation as a panacea. The final decision made by the recreation professional is a function not only of evidence gathered but also of insightful judgment. Thus, evaluation needs to be kept in an appropriate perspective.

Second, the instructor must counteract the defeatist attitudes prevalent among undergraduate recreation majors that assessment, evaluation, and statistics are beyond their grasp. If the course is structured appropriately, the students are likely to experience enhanced feelings of competence and mastery over subject matter they once viewed with apprehension.

Finally, typical competitive grading structures may well be inappropriate. If the objective is to arrive at an end product, that is, the student who is competent and thus accountable, then all students in an evaluation course should be expected to demonstrate proficiency in all topics covered. With mastery as the objective, the recreation educator may want to consider teaching evaluation techniques using a programmed learning or laboratory format. This decision should be an individual one, variable among institutions. What is crucial, in the end, is that undergraduate students should be competent and accountable upon entering their professional careers. If they are not, the professional is likely to do a disservice to the constituency and in turn may deservedly place part of the blame on his or her professional preparation program.

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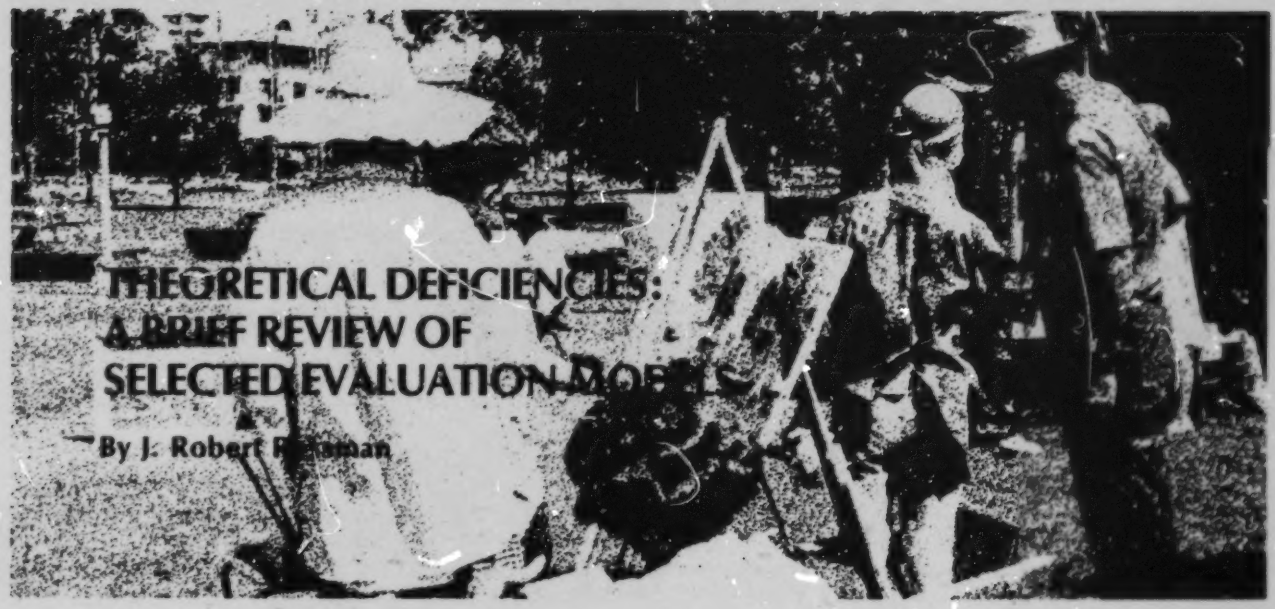

THEORETICAL DEFICIENCIES: A BRIEF REVIEW OF SELECTED EVALUATION MODELS

By J. Robert Rossman

A perusal of leisure service evaluation literature reveals four recurring themes about leisure service evaluation. First, there is the continued theme that evaluation is one of the desirable steps in recreation programming (Butler, 1967; Reynolds & Hormachea, 1976; and others). Second, evaluation is viewed as an ongoing process rather than a terminal one (Reynolds & Hormachea, 1976; Shivers, 1978; Tillman, 1973). Third, several authors have defined evaluation as a process used to discover the worth of something (Bannon, 1976; Kraus, 1977; Reynolds & Hormachea, 1976; Shivers, 1967, 1978). Fourth, only the Tylerian goals approach (in which actual outcomes are measured against prestated goals) or some modified form of it has received serious treatment in the literature as a usable process of evaluating leisure services (Bannon, 1976; Hjelte & Shivers, 1978; Kraus, 1977; Murphy, Williams, Neipoth, & Brown, 1973; Peterson, 1976; Rodney, 1964; Shivers, 1967; Tillman, 1973; Vannier, 1977). Leisure service evaluation is viewed as a desirable, ongoing process in which one attempts to judge the worth of something by comparing performance with preselected goals. Value is determined by the degree to which preselected goals are achieved.

From this ongoing discussion of leisure service evaluation, recreators have developed six evaluation models which will be reviewed—Hatry and Dunn (1971), Fisk, Hatry, Hudak, Webb, & Fine (1973[1]), van der Smissen (1972), Bannon (1976), Gunn and Peterson (1978), Nolan (1978), and Olson (1978). Collectively, these models represent some of the most influential and recent work in the area.

Hatry and Dunn Model

The *Hatry and Dunn* evaluation model was developed as a joint project between the Urban Institute and the U.S. Department of Interior in 1973. The major purpose of the evaluation model was to help management monitor program effectiveness for budgeting, planning, control, and coordinating purposes and the primary audience addressed by the model is recreation managers.

The process of the model includes collecting data from departmental records and a periodic citizen survey on 12 measures of effectiveness designated in the model. Evaluation of the whole leisure service system as an entity rather than the effects of specific programs on individuals is emphasized. The value framework within which judgments of worth are made comes from professionals rather than clients.

Van der Smissen Model

The *van der Smissen* model is published and sanctioned by the National Recreation and Park Association. The major purpose for evaluation assumed by the model is to establish accountability and to systematically assess total operations. The principal audiences the model addresses are the agency's administration and board and the general public. The model uses a process of comparing agency performance via identified criteria (i.e., measures of effectiveness) with normative standards (i.e., statements of desirable practice). The standards and criteria were both developed by a jury of professional park and recreation executives. The model determines worth based on the values of the profession and ignores the participant's viewpoint about what constitutes beneficial service.

Bannon Model

The purpose of the *Bannon* evaluation model is to carry out an objective evaluation of the leisure service delivery system and comprehensive plan. It is a two-track, goals-oriented approach which emphasizes the equal weight of both staff and citizens in determining the criteria to be used for judging the worth of programs. Staff and citizens are both identified as relevant evaluation audiences. Even so, the use of an outside consultant is strongly recommended to assure an unbiased opinion.

Evaluation in the model is perceived as a cyclical process that brings greater insight and improvement to programs with each cycle. The model is the logical outgrowth of a history of thought in the recreation and parks movement that

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[1]The original Hatry and Dunn evaluation model was contained in an Urban Institute publication published in 1971. The 1973 publication has several authors and is a more elaborate model but a direct extension of Hatry and Dunn's original work. I have taken the liberty of continuing to refer to it as the Hatry and Dunn model.

emphasizes the involvement of lay citizens in the provision of public recreation services. Clearly, the model requires more citizen input in shaping the value framework of evaluation than the *van der Smissen or Hatry and Dunn* models. However, the model does not identify any judgment criteria. The usefulness of the model for evaluation purposes is entirely dependent upon the validity of the program goals and judgment criteria selected by staff and clients. Bannon's evaluation model gives guidance for incorporating citizens in the evaluation process but not in selecting valid indicators of success for leisure services.

Gunn and Peterson Model

The *Gunn and Peterson* model is a discrepancy approach to evaluation. Its purpose is to document accountability for program services and to provide the data necessary for improving service delivery techniques. The intended audiences of their evaluation results are operations personnel, administrators, and funding agencies. Evaluation is a step in their comprehensive program planning model which includes (1) conceptualizing the program, (2) designing the program with a systems design approach, (3) developing an implementation plan, and (4) designing an evaluation plan.

The process of the model involves identifying any discrepancies between intended and actual program inputs, outputs, and processes. Emphasis is placed on expressing client expectations with behaviorally stated goals. The model does not suggest any evaluation criteria—it is only a process for evaluating. How to determine evaluation criteria is addressed by other techniques within the comprehensive program plan, including individual and group assessment and the resulting program process and treatment goals. As in the Bannon model, the usefulness of the evaluation model is dependent upon the validity of the evaluation criteria which are selected.

Olson Model

Olson developed an alternate approach to program evaluation in leisure services. In its final form, the process of the model stresses "a flexible and qualitative approach" to program evaluation which uses a "free flowing exploratory and responsive style" (Olson, 1978, p. 2). The model portrays to relevant audiences the primary elements of a leisure program, i.e., the social context of the program, the program transactions, audience expectations, and immediate and longer-range outcomes. Determining the evaluation audience or audiences to be addressed is part of the model's procedures. No specific *investigative process is recommended* in the model although the author suggests that the techniques used should fit the resources available, the setting, and the evaluation questions. The usefulness of the model is dependent on the skill of the evaluator and the validity of the evaluation criteria selected.

Nolan Model

Nolan developed the Program Evaluation Procedure (PEP). Its purpose was "to provide decision makers with a well rounded view of a program" (Nolan, 1978, p. 44). The primary evaluation audiences addressed are middle management and upper-level administrators. The process used by the model involves collecting and analyzing a variety of operational data. The PEP model, more than any other procedure, requires the evaluator to examine a program within the context of the organization that provides it. Nolan states: "PEP is primarily an information gathering tool. It tries to depoliticize the evaluation process by divorcing it from assessing goodness or badness" (Nolan, 1978, p. 44). Therein lies the difficulty of the model. Assessing worth is the touchstone of evaluation and the model fails to address this issue. The model identifies a large number of issues to examine but gives no direction about what weightings of them constitute good practice.

Unresolved Issues

Two distinct types of models have emerged—process and preordinate models. Process models delineate a set of steps and procedures to be used in conducting an evaluation without identifying the judgment criteria to be used in making judgments of worth. Preordinate models provide a process and specify the judgment criteria to be used in determining the worth of a leisure program. Each type leaves several issues unresolved.

Process Models

The Bannon, Olson, and Gunn-Peterson models are process models. They are very flexible models since they do not prespecify what criteria are to be used in determining the worth of a leisure program. However, "Criteria are the basic organizing framework of evaluation as hypotheses are in research" (Steele, 1975, p. 15). Programs can be judged on a wide range of criteria, some of which are more important than others. Criteria selection is a crucial step in evaluation and one that is not completed a priori by process models.

The evaluator then is left with the task of criteria selection. Each process model recommends a different source for judgment criteria. Bannon recommends they be negotiated by staff and clients; Olson recommends they be developed by the evaluator after preliminary assessment of the evaluation audience and the program; and Gunn-Peterson recommend they be derived from the results of a clinical assessment of a client's condition. The usefulness of the evaluation is entirely dependent upon the validity of selected criteria as indicators of successful leisure provision. Because of the lack of knowledge about the leisure experience, judgment criteria that are tangential to experiencing leisure can be selected and consequently leisure service programs are often judged for their worth as instruments to achieve other social goals, such as reducing juvenile crime, contributing to mental health, etc. This strategy frequently renders a disappointing judgment about the worth of leisure programs because they often are not useful instruments for such other purposes.

Evaluation of leisure services should judge the worth of leisure programs by the degree to which they have provided leisure experiences for participants. Accomplishing this is directly dependent on how closely judgment criteria are tied to leisure theory. In failing to identify judgment criteria, process models leave this issue to the evaluator. Consequently, their usefulness is dependent on the amount of knowledge the evaluator possesses about leisure and leisure service provision.

Preordinate Models

The Nolan, Hatry and Dunn, and van der Smissen models are preordinate models. These models are rigid and unresponsive to varying conditions because of their preconceived notion of what judgment criteria need to be examined to determine the worth of a leisure program. Pondy (1977) has argued that "All evaluation takes place on the basis of a model of the situation, a set of presumptions about what is important and relevant" (p. 13).

The "model of the situation" assumed by the preordinate models has been challenged. In critiquing the standards approach (i.e., van der Smissen) Bannon (1976) states: "Of greater concern is the implied linkage between the

criteria (standards) and effectiveness. There is little evidence to support the notion that adherence to program standards predicts some ultimate criterion of program success" (p. 269). Similarly, Bannon criticizes the implied casual linkages between the evaluation criteria used in the Hatry and Dunn model and successful leisure services. Nolan also assumes there is some link between the evaluation criteria she has identified and successful programming.

All three preordinate models reviewed place a good deal of emphasis on the leisure service organization itself and are influenced more by organizational theory than leisure theory. The outcome of specific program services on individual participants is largely ignored in favor of assessing measures of general organizational effectiveness. Their assumption is that an effective organization will deliver effective services.

Future Models

Models developed to date have failed to use an accepted, empirically established theory of leisure to shape their development or, as Pondy would argue, their "model of the situation." A major area of neglect in these approaches is the central concern of all leisure service agencies—the provision of satisfying leisure experiences. An adequate conceptualization of the leisure experience must be used to shape future evaluation models.

One promising theory in which the products of leisure engagement are identified as the satisfactions derived from participation is provided by Driver and Brown (1975). The theory is based on modern theories of human behavior and conceptualizes human beings as complex information processing, problem solving organisms. Problem states are not necessarily negative-adverse states but simply gaps between an existing state and one that is more preferred. Behavior then is motivated by attempts to move across the gap from an existing to a more preferred state. Resolution of the problem state or achieving the preferred state places individuals in a state of pleasure (i.e., an awareness of a positive experience). These pleasurable, positive experiences are the satisfactions derived from leisure participation and are the immediate outcomes of participation.

Experiencing leisure produces a variety of satisfactions and the social value of leisure engagement is the fact that individuals derive satisfaction from this engagement. Using this theory as a "model of the situation" one can argue that the appropriate judgment criteria for evaluating leisure services are the satisfactions which are produced.

Measuring satisfactions has been used in recent years for several purposes including planning (Driver & Brown, 1975), theoretical work (Kelly, 1978), substitutability studies (Christensen & Yoesting, 1977), leisure counseling (Tinsley, Barrett, & Kass, 1977), and marketing studies (Hawes, 1978). Using satisfactions as an outcome measure of leisure engagement is well accepted. Measuring reported satisfactions with leisure engagement as judgment criteria for determining the worth of leisure services provided is only a minor deviation from work already accomplished.

Conclusion

Leisure service evaluation models have drawn heavily from other fields for evaluation techniques and an overall "model of the situation" to be evaluated. Because models developed to date have not been guided by leisure theory, they have deficiencies that limit their applicability. They are useful in specific situations where one's purpose, audience, and process needed match those of the model. A practitioner faced with evaluation must be aware of a model's deficiencies or run the risk of applying it inappropriately.

Future model development must be guided by leisure theory. One example of how model development can be guided by theory was provided. Employing a similar strategy will improve the theoretical deficiencies of future models, increase the usefulness of models for practitioners, and assure that models judge the worth of leisure experiences—not tangential phenomena.

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PROGRAM PORTRAYAL: A QUALITATIVE APPROACH TO RECREATION PROGRAM EVALUATION

By Ernest G. Olson

Within recent years, there has been a great deal of discussion regarding evaluation, and with that discussion has risen an abundance of evaluation models (for example, see Howe, 1979; Stake, 1972). With few exceptions, these models use the tools of social science and are frequently generated from the quantitative worlds of business and education. These models tend to be analytical in purpose, are quantitative in methodology, and are comprised of a language and a style generally foreign to the domain of play and recreation. Such models are usually elegant in design, but in many instances so complex and esoteric that in application they prove unresponsive to the needs and capabilities of the general recreation practitioner.

In contrast to the quantitative orientation are the more qualitative models. These models tend to be relatively simple in design and frequently rely upon data generated through firsthand observation, informal dialogue, and professional intuitive judgment. Relying more upon description than analysis, the qualitative style is generally more amenable to the skills and needs of the general practitioner. Although not as research-oriented as most quantitative methods, the qualitative approach may prove a useful alternative in those situations where quantitative designs are unfeasible or inappropriate.

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Portrayal Evaluation: An Alternative

One approach to evaluation, which provides an inexpensive and largely qualitative alternative, may be thought of as an "in-house program portrayal." Such an approach may be conducted by staff members as part of their routine duties. The approach focuses on easily collected, nonnumerical data and emphasizes a broad description of the programs compared to the quantitative analysis of more research-oriented models.

This approach generally has appeal to practitioners because it relies on the powers of observation, reporting, and analysis common to most practitioners. It tends to provide a certain structure to these skills in an effort to increase the validity of such an evaluation, but ordinarily does not demand complex mathematical manipulations nor does it usually require translation by a professional researcher or evaluator.

A portrayal approach has two major elements: First, it is *formative*, current, and ongoing, and thus responsive to the ever changing dynamics that define a given program. It is in touch with what is happening "in the street" and is potentially an instrument for altering negative program elements as soon as they are identified. Secondly, it is *summative* in that, at the conclusion of a program, the data collected can then be reduced to a summary statement, to be used as a resource in subsequent program planning.

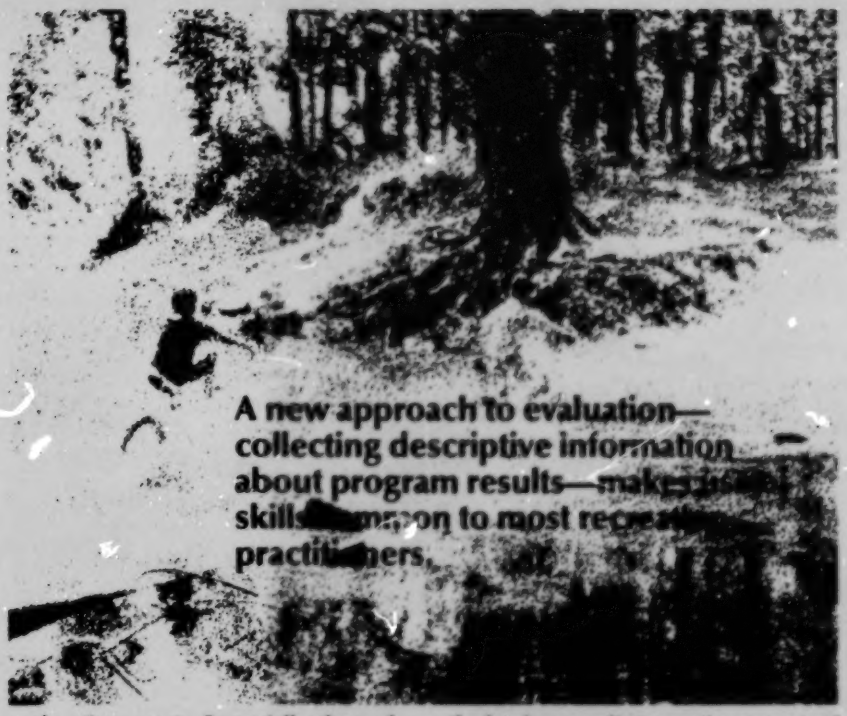
The approach calls for all levels of program leadership to contribute to the program evaluation by collecting *data bits*. Such data bits may be pertinent letters, photographs, newspaper clippings, and/or other program artifacts. The form that data bits take is largely determined by the skills and interests of the people involved in the evaluation.

Data bit items may be thought of as evidence either supporting or refuting various aspects of the program. Furthermore, program leaders are expected to compile a short journal highlighting their observations, thus providing a historical context for the data bits collected. The data bits are carefully filed in a program evaluation portfolio, which then becomes the primary reference for subsequent reports to higher authorities. In essence, the portfolio should contain evidence regarding: (1) the transactions that define the program, (2) evidence supporting the program, and (3) evidence disputing certain aspects of the program. Such an approach may be compared to a court case wherein a judgment is made following a careful review of the evidence.

One important departure from the "forensic model" analogy is that in portrayal evaluation the program leader is encouraged to modify program offerings in accordance with the direction suggested by the emerging data. The leader need not wait until the end of the program to decide upon possible changes. Changes may be made at anytime, thus making a portrayal evaluation *formative* as well as *summative*.

Types of Evidence Used

Evidence Regarding Transactions. "Transactions" relate to the interactions between participants, participants and leaders, leaders and others, and all human actors and the physical and nat-



A new approach to evaluation—collecting descriptive information about program results—makes use of skills common to most recreation practitioners.

ural environments. Essentially, the evaluator attempts to collect data that permit accurate description of the nature of these transactions. In effect, the evaluator attempts to answer these questions: (1) What is the setting in which the program occurs? (2) Who are the actors? (3) How do the actors interrelate? (4) How do the actors relate to the system and environment in which the activity occurs?

Evidence Supporting Various Aspects of the Program. In the course of the program, the observer will be privy to conversations (direct and indirect) and positive and negative feedback, will make independent observations regarding the negative and positive outcomes of the program, and will likely solicit opinions from a wide array of interested parties. For example, the program leader may learn that many parents view a given program as having accounted for various positive outcomes in the lives of their children. These testimonies are data bits that tend to support the value of the program. This observation may be tested and evaluated by collecting related data bits from teachers, other participants, and personal observation. Items attesting to the positive outcomes of the program should be systematically collated, filed, and summarized.

Evidence Against Various Aspects of the Program. Participant or public feedback and/or personal observations by the leader revealing negative aspects of the program should be dutifully noted, filed, and summarized. As the weight of the evidence builds regarding a certain aspect of a program, the leader should vary the program, within the limits of policy and other logical constraints, in accord with the direction implied by the observations. Subsequent observations regarding the areas modified should be directed at determining the extent to which the change brought about a desired result.

Limitations

Subjectivity and Bias. Portrayal evaluation may be criticized because of the subjective manner in which data bits are collected and interpreted. This poses a serious limitation, particularly in situations where the evaluator fails to build into this evaluation plan a system of checks to enhance the accuracy of observations and judgments. To minimize this situation, it is desirable to provide for the collection of observations from a variety of sources. The greater the similarity in observations and judgments, the greater the probability that the observations and judgments are accurate.

Focus of Control. An in-house portrayal evaluation may be criticized because it puts a great deal of control in the hands of the program leader. Thus, the program portfolio, it is argued, may be altered according to the predisposition and integrity of the leaders involved. To enhance the probability of authenticity and objectivity, some have suggested using an *advocacy* and *adversary* approach. One staff member collects adverse data while another collects supportive data. Both then report their findings simultaneously. This legalistic model may help to minimize questions regarding distortion in the study.

Time as a Limitation. Some have criticized this approach as being very time consuming. Those who have tried the approach indicate that it is not necessarily more time consuming than quantitative styles, but it does require one to structure one's time to permit the development, collection, and filing of data bits (Olson, 1978, p. 199). Quite frequently information comes to the attention of a leader, but because of lack of planning, it is perceived as having little value, or, if valued, it is without a receptacle for storage or vehicle for action. Over time leaders will form a general impression of their program as data bits pass their desks. But unless these are carefully examined, filed, and periodically summarized, it is likely that their leaders' impressions will be of little evaluative use. Unless the supportive data are available, such impressions may be challenged as unsupported opinions.

This paper has explained an alternative to the more complex and often more expensive evaluation models frequently presented in current literature. This approach, "in-house portrayal evaluation," calls for the systematic collection of data bits (descriptive information) in an effort to portray the positive and negative aspects of the recreation program in question. Its strength comes from the fact that it can be done without great expense and uses skills common to most recreation practitioners.

Practitioners with comments regarding this approach to evaluation are urged to write the author.

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IN THERA... RECREATION SERVIC...

By Jesse T. Dixon

The concept of evaluation in therapeutic recreation involves the collection of information in order to make useful judgments concerning (1) the selection of leisure activities for program content, (2) the degree of intrinsic motivation and satisfaction demonstrated by the client or patient during leisure participation, and (3) the benefits of leisure participation for individuals who experience a handicap (Gunn & Peterson, 1978; Kraus, 1978; O'Morrow, 1976). Ideally, the evaluation process should be an integral part of a therapeutic recreation program. That is, the therapeutic recreation professional should plan activities and design the conduct of a program with the intent of recording information about client or patient participation. Evaluation procedures can help to identify and clarify the role of the leisure experience in a remedial setting. In addition, the therapeutic recreation professional can be accountable to the patient or client, administrative funding sources, and the therapeutic recreation profession. The way handicapped people are portrayed in the evaluation process of a therapeutic recreation program will subsequently influence their independent leisure participation, their self-concept, and the way they are perceived by others. Thus, the therapeutic recreation professional should determine the purpose of the evaluation process carefully during program planning.

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The Purpose of Client/Patient Evaluation

Patient or client evaluation in therapeutic recreation involves collecting information during a direct interaction with the professional or observing the individual in either a solitary or group leisure experience. The purpose of the evaluation process may be normative, functional, or emphasize the education and awareness of a patient or client.

Normative evaluation generally compares the performance or behavior of a patient or client with cultural or developmental standards representing the majority of society. In essence, this is a social comparison and reflects any deviancy from the norm. Normative evaluation is frequently used in recreation programming with the mentally retarded. Age appropriate behavior, etiquette, and desirable social skills can be useful in facilitating normalization and mainstreaming efforts with mentally retarded individuals in the community setting.

Functional evaluation does not use a social norm as a standard for making judgments about an individual's leisure participation. The demonstrated physical and mental skills of the participant are measured in relation to the physical and mental requirements in a leisure experience. Functional evaluation is frequently used with the physically handicapped who do not have the use of a body part. For example, the above the elbow amputee may require an adapted prosthetic device in order to operate both flipper buttons on a pinball machine. A functional evaluation would not focus on the physical difference of the individual from the majority of society. Instead, the evaluation information would be used to determine if the prosthesis was satisfactory for independent leisure participation.

Education-awareness evaluation involves interacting with, teaching, and facilitating the handicapped individual as a part of a recreation program before making judgments about his or her participation. The evaluation procedure does not use a social norm or a list of activity requirements for criteria. Rather, the programmed leisure experience is compared with the remedial needs and personal interests of the handicapped individual. For example, the use of a running program to develop cardiovascular fitness and provide activity for the mentally retarded should be conducted in accordance with the motivational needs of the individual clients. During evaluation, some individuals may prefer to run alone while others may prefer a group for socializing or competition. Without consideration for the motivational needs of the participants the evaluation would not be accurate. Similarly, when evaluating a blind individual's participation in a claymodeling art class it is important to know his or her preference for teaching methods. Some individuals may prefer more kinesthetic and tactile cues for learning about shapes while others may only require verbal direction. Preferences for learning are patient or client determined and can influence leisure participation if recognized by the therapeutic recreation professional.

Since the evaluation process in therapeutic recreation is a direct reflection of the person who experiences a handicap, it is important for the professional to clearly identify the purpose. This may involve isolating or combining the normative, functional, or education-awareness purposes of evaluation with respect to agency service goals and patient or client needs.

Developing the Evaluation Component

The following is a list of guidelines for developing the evaluation component of therapeutic recreation service for a patient or client.

1. Determine whether the patient or client is in need of therapy, leisure education, or independent recreation (Gunn & Peterson, 1978).

2. Determine the intended purpose for conducting an evaluation of the patient or client.

3. Select the recreational activities to accurately reflect the purpose of the evaluation. (This is an intuitive process for the professional.) For example, determine whether the activities are desirable for encouraging social integration and normalization, developing functional mobility, or satisfying the program requests of the patient or client.

4. Select the procedure for implementing the evaluation. (a) Identify your own strengths and preferences for evaluating the patient or client. (b) Identify the strengths and preferences of the patient or client.

5. Interpret the implications of the information collected in terms of the evaluation purpose and procedures and the conditions or variables that might have been influential, e.g. personal crises, vacation interruptions, etc.

These guidelines are intended to emphasize the role of the therapeutic recreation professional in the evaluation of a patient or client. There is no universal or standardized evaluation form or procedure for collecting information and making judgments about the leisure participation of handicapped individuals. The nature of individual preferences for leisure participation requires the professional to make the evaluation procedure unique to each individual and a part of the leisure experience.

Evaluation and the Leisure Experience

Ideally, evaluation can be a part of therapeutic recreation service if the process complements treatment goals and encourages client or patient participation. This includes making the evaluation process a positive experience for the participants being served. For example, with mentally retarded individuals a standard procedure for collecting information during an evaluation may ignore differences in perceptual abilities. Some persons may require more verbal direction or physical demonstration than others in order to clearly understand what is sought in the evaluation.

Evaluation of leisure participation for handicapped persons can positively influence their self-perception.

Enthusiasm should be exhibited and the idea of fun should be promoted as a part of the evaluation process. The therapeutic recreation professional can model such an attitude and interact with the participants to make evaluation personal and nonthreatening.

It is important for the patient or client to have an awareness of the evaluation process and its purpose for him or her. This will encourage both positive and negative feedback regarding their view of evaluation.

Finally, the result of evaluating a patient or client does not have to be interpreted as negative unless the instruction or counseling provided does not facilitate them to adapt when they experience a handicap in leisure participation. For example, visual impairment may not be restrictive in recreation if sufficient auditory, tactile, kinesthetic, and abstract cues are provided. The above the elbow amputee need not be excluded from activities that require two hands if a functional device can be substituted. Similarly, a deaf individual can be included in activities that utilize auditory commands by including visual cues for participation, e.g., touch football. Interpreting evaluation information can identify considerations for facilitating independent leisure participation rather than emphasizing individual differences (Dixon, 1979a, b). The use of the leisure experience in therapeutic recreation service should facilitate the patient or the client to participate in evaluation rather than be subjected to it.

Recent federal legislation supporting recreation for the handicapped (Public Law 94-142) and the growth of human services aimed at improving the quality of life for handicapped individuals suggest that professional concern for evaluation will only increase. In order for therapeutic recreation professionals to be accountable to the patient or client, administrative funding sources, and their own profession, evaluation procedures will need to be well planned and implemented.

The role of evaluation in therapeutic recreation service will be directly affected by the purpose of the evaluation process. Evaluation can provide a social comparison, indicate a functional level of skill, contribute to the education, awareness, and growth of an individual, or be a combination of all of these. It is important to know what you want because if you try hard enough you are going to get it (Cox, 1979). This perspective on life has a strong implication for the role of evaluation. The way persons who experience a handicap are portrayed in an evaluation of their leisure participation will influence their self-perception and the way they are perceived by society. Therapeutic recreation professionals should determine evaluation purpose carefully, incorporate the evaluation process into program planning, and implement evaluation as a part of the leisure experience for patients and clients.

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Cox, G.A. Excerpt from a conversation. Cox is a philosopher/contractor who lives in Dallas, Texas and graciously shared some of his insights with this author.

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Section VII

Marilyn Jensen, Ph.D.
Computer Applications
(April 1984)

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It's difficult to remember how we worked in 1946 when Enaic was the first computer. It is equally difficult to predict what our life and work will be like in another 20 years when "high tech" is even more a part of our work and play. There will be advances in the technology that we cannot possibly predict. Thirty years ago, an article in Horizons *projected that by the year 2000, 98% of the world's population could be maintained by 2% of it because of the shift from manual labor to a highly technological society.*

—Marilyn Jensen
Editor

COMPUTER APPLICATIONS— AN INTRODUCTION

MARILYN A. JENSEN

It has been difficult to know how best to introduce this issue of *Leisure Today*. To provide a historical perspective on most topics would require accounting for literally hundreds and thousands of years. The extent of change which has occurred in computers might rival events accomplished in an equally long period; however, the actual passage of time since their inception is a meager 20 years. So much has happened with computers in parks and recreation! As a consequence of rapid change, this issue can only sample current activities and suggest what the near future will bring.

It All Began . . .

The early all-electronic computers, beginning in 1946 with Enaic, were massive in scale, and required cool temperatures to ensure correct vacuum tube functioning. The men and women who worked with these machines and programmed their large boards that looked like telephone switchboards were so few in number that in the early '50s early U.S. programmers could call each other by name.

One of these individuals had a dream . . .a dream that by 1965 took shape in the form of a research project jointly funded by the University of Southern California and the city of South Gate, California, a municipality with a population of 58,000. This pioneer, William E. Mitchel, pulled together a research team consisting of 16 men and 1 woman to develop a model municipal management information system to include, among other functions, a recreation and park subsystem. The team members were not parks and recreation professionals, but were managers in police, fire, finance, and public works departments, public administrators, and systems analysts. As my master's thesis had identified possible uses of computers in recreation administration and I had eight years of municipal administrative experience, I was included in the research team.

We learned that service would be more effective and direct savings gained by automating class registration, facility reservations, and service requests. These processes permitted substantial clerical reductions. They also enabled identification of current users of services, development of timely statistical analyses, time reduction of routine activities, evaluation of consistent operations. It also became apparent that as computer use increased, dramatic changes would occur in the organization's structure.

Many results of that project are reflected in today's systems. Some forces which worked against implementing computer use then are still evident today. (1) The mystique of the machine is compounded by its use by individuals who use a vocabulary not commonly understood. (2) People are concerned that the machine would displace people in the

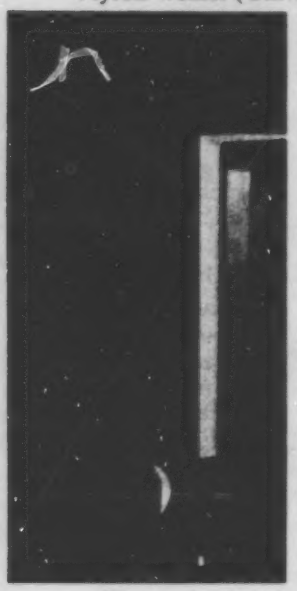
Senator Howard Baker (TN) presses pressure sensitive computerized video screen at the 1982 World's Fair in Knoxville. The computer quiz was part of an exhibit at the U.S. Pavilion.

organization. (3) People resist change, both in work style and tasks. (4) People fear the potential loss of individual power when information is more widely available.

The Work Continues . . .

Very likely most *Journal* readers haven't heard of "Sogammis" (the acronym for the project), nor do they realize what the impact of that research could be on how we work. It was difficult to find recreation professionals in 1965 who would talk about developing computerized systems, let alone comfortably consider the possibility of a mechanized "monster" in their future. But other pathfinders were thinking along the same lines.

One, whose conceptual efforts often go unnoticed is Myron Weiner (University of Connecticut). His model of a parks and recreation subsystem, based on his own research and that of the "Sogammis" findings, was first published in 1969. He has since included the model in his Management of Human Services text (1982). An individual educated in public administration and deeply committed to human services, he brings a unique perspective to parks and recreation computer research.



Others began to contribute to the information pool. The names of Van Doren and Unkel, Wagner, Devine, Sharpless, and Siderelis soon appeared in the literature. The sparse information about computer applications available in the '70s had been augmented significantly by the time Siderelis published a 1980 reference guide listing 376 applications.

The work of academicians was accelerated by a growing body of practitioners led by Doyle Allen from Camden, South Carolina. A self-taught programmer and dedicated professional, his results using a TRS-80 convinced many doubters. Lured by the capability and the relative low cost, and driven by the need to provide more effective service which required better information control, recreation people began to use computers. Applications proliferated and the elaborate systems designs encouraged by the main-frame proponents were supplemented by the "canned" programs available at microcomputer stores.

Ahead of Us Lies . . .

We've made great strides in fewer than 20 years. We may have overlooked some of the pathfinders, as David E. Gray calls our adventurers into unknown "space," but we have overcome much of our hesitancy about examining where we can interface positively with the creative new technology. We've learned that the computer won't necessarily save money, solve every problem, run itself, always be right, or meet all of its own needs. We've also learned that the computer isn't the solution to an improperly functioning organization—that merely having a computer won't make an organization run right. If anything, the introducing a computer into the organization can compound ineffectiveness by multiplying the speed and increasing the volume of inaccurate and inappropriate information. We have also learned that the computer doesn't become obsolete! The imaginative person can find appropriate ways to use last year's computer model. The momentum to include computers in our lives increased dramatically with the advent of the microprocessor which made the microcomputer possible. Smaller, faster and more powerful than the mainframes of the last decade, these machines continue to change the way we work and enjoy leisure. Acceptance of the computer in the workplace has been hastened by user-friendly languages and computer games for the home. The very young have become the leaders.

Statistics indicate that in 1980 38,000 personal computers were sold. As of June, 1982, there were 500,000 personal computers with an estimated 1.5 million installed by the end of that year. By the end of 1983, sales should have reached 3.5 million. The number of desktop computers in schools has reached 274,000, with a projection that at least one million will be in the schools by 1986. Although only 3% of professional, managerial and administrative workers currently use computers, an estimated 65% of these workers will regularly use them by 1990.

The proliferation of computers is accompanied by growing concern about some ethical issues. Data banks threaten individuals' right to privacy, and the use of robotics may eliminate or alter jobs. Computer crimes increase, and software piracy is rampant. The leisure ethic becomes more important. Concerns about an antitechnology revolution are raised as the gap widens between those who have access to technology and those who have not. The resolution of these issues must not be ignored.

And Finally . . .

It's difficult to remember how we worked in 1946 when Enaic was the first computer. It is equally difficult to predict what our life and work will be like in another 20 years when "high tech" is even more a part of our work and play. There will be advances in the technology that we cannot possibly predict. Thirty years ago, an article in *Horizons* projected that by the year 2000, 98% of the world's population could be maintained by 2% of it because of the shift from manual labor to a highly technological society. The only question now is *when,* as work is increasingly a function of brain, or intelligence rather than muscle. Isaac Asimov's most recent prediction that we are on the brink of new cultural revolutions becomes critical for us. Will learning become more fun when everyone can access vast storehouses of information? Will the 21st century use and encourage the natural creative potential of human beings from birth? Will routinized work be done by machines, leaving human work to humans? Who better than we can explore this human work? Who better can discover new horizons for the self-actualization of our citizens? Who better can provide the experience and knowledge that people will need to fill their leisure? We will continue to work with the technology knowing that the humanness of our discipline makes us the natural leaders for the future. As Asimov says, "What will be left then for human beings to do? Only everything—everything human, that is. Everything that involves insight, intuition, fancy, imagination, creativity."

—Marilyn Jensen, Editor
California State University, Long Beach

INTERACTIVE COMPUTERS
THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN URBAN LEISURE INFORMATION SERVICE

JEFF HAYWARD
KENYON FAIREY

While many parks, recreation, or leisure service agencies are making a move to use computers as a management tool, few are attending to the tremendous potential of the use of these same machines for leisure services. The move is on to become computer literate and to enjoy the fascination of computer games. Software for educational or recreational purposes increases daily. As more and more people become curious about interacting with computers, the potential for providing information and services through interactive computer programs can only increase.

This article reports a new project which is developing an interactive, user-operated leisure information service called Leisure Match. This service will allow the public to use microcomputers to identify leisure opportunities and will solicit information from users to assess trends in recreation and leisure interests. Leisure Match is a cooperative project of the Environment and Behavior Research Center of the University of Massachusetts and the Department of Parks and Recreation in Hartford, Connecticut. By recommending leisure opportunities to each user, this system will allow the city of Hartford to facilitate many activities, settings, and experiences available through its own programs as well as those of other urban area sponsors. Thus, Leisure Match will test the feasibility and impact of a sophisticated information service for urban recreation and leisure.

Hartford's new information service may direct children to activities such as this mask-making program. Photo: Fred Ware.

Why Computerize Leisure Services?

Leisure Match developed out of a perceived need by the Department of Parks and Recreation to increase the quality of leisure services provided for Hartford residents and employees. To improve these services, three main elements were deemed necessary: (1) a service to increase people's awareness of and knowledge about leisure opportunities, (2) a data management system to provide timely and accurate information both to the public and to managers, and (3) a data bank to accumulate information about the pub-

lic's interests. The project's goals were based on these elements.

The primary goal of Leisure Match is to develop an interactive computer information service for Hartford residents and employees to increase their awareness of city leisure opportunities. This service will encompass several components. It will help a person match leisure interests to leisure opportunities. It will also help people understand the urban leisure environment by explaining how they may enjoy new and different leisure experiences. As persons become aware of more leisure opportunities, they may also be encouraged to try new experiences or alternative methods for meeting leisure needs. Thus, enhancing a person's quality of life during leisure may contribute to a more positive outlook on living or working in Hartford.

The second goal of the project is to develop and maintain an effective computerized information system for the public and management. Especially with extremely large data banks, management is an important issue. For the system to work effectively, information must be complete and accurate. Interviews with residents and city employees have obtained information on leisure attitudes, behaviors, and interests. Surveys have also been conducted to describe the leisure settings and leisure opportunities in Hartford. The system for storing and using this in-depth information is complex. It must allow for continual updating. It must be flexible enough to accommodate the needs of a diversified clientele, be effective for both new and repeat users, and stimulate repeated use, and with improved technology, it must be adaptable to future flexible expansion.

To meet the third goal of the project, an information data bank will assist management in future planning and resource allocation. Although primary interviews and surveys have provided the initial information for this project, the data gathered in the daily operation of the system will begin to yield a more timely and accurate understanding of the needs of a variety of user groups. Correlational information may be obtained from the users' interactions with the program. Longitudinal information will provide insight into trends and changes in leisure behavior patterns over time. These two kinds of information will provide for more informed planning and management by the Department of Parks and Recreation and enable service of an ever-changing clientele. City resources may thus be efficiently and effectively managed to facilitate quality leisure experiences for the public.

Several Approaches to System Design

With these goals in mind, one might take several different approaches to designing an actual system. A number of organizations and agencies have been developing alternative models of such computer services. For example, privately-operated visitor or tourist information services have been established in Toronto (Teleguide), Boston (Teletouch), Atlanta, and other cities. Similar publicity-operated services have been established in National Park visitor centers such as in the Great Smoky Mountains, a system previously used at the Knoxville, Tennessee World's Fair. These systems consist of a small computer terminal with a touch-sensitive screen, presenting a series of lists and choices to the user. (These displays are commonly called "menu screens.") For example, one display might ask users to choose information on restaurants, hotels, bookstores, sports, and parks. Systems for private operations are supported by paid listings (e.g., a restaurant pays to appear in the list of restaurants), with some public facilities added for general interest.

A different approach to a leisure information service is FUNN Phone, developed by the Oakland, California, Office of Parks and Recreation. This computerized referral service enables people to call in (between 15 and 45 a day) about a specific interest; staff members who receive the calls can refer to computer printouts and give the person up-to-date information about the locations and times of programs related to the user's interests. This development was supported by a UPARR grant and partial local funding.

A third approach to an information service has recently been put into operation in Rochester, New York. The city is using a computer terminal to promote new facilities and exhibits. Interestingly, the "listings" include descriptions of the cultural and industrial heritage of the city.

These different approaches are all primarily *directory* systems, which give the user access to complex information. Directory systems, however, might be analogous to "the tip of the iceberg" for computers; they use very little interactive potential and are fairly conventional. If users know what they want, they can look through this sophisticated "card catalog" (the computer) and find the details.

The Leisure Match project in Hartford represents a further innovative step. It will build upon the interactive potential of the computer and help users select leisure experiences which fit their interests. As an interactive, responsive service, this system uses information about each user to construct a "match" with a data bank of information and available leisure opportunities. We refer to this system as an *interpretive* system. It improves upon the *directory* model (which is relatively static and has fixed entries presented in the same way to each user) because it can assist users make decisions and allow them to select leisure experiences based on issues and constraints important to them.

Planning and Implementation

The goal of Leisure Match is to interpret the urban environment to facilitate new leisure experiences for users and thus to broaden their awareness of Hartford leisure opportunities. While the idea of using a computer to do this is exciting and innovative, an incredible amount of planning and groundwork is necessary before the system can be "up and running." Part of this groundwork involves *research*—collecting information about leisure experiences, existing sites, and programs, as well as information about typical interests of potential users. Another part of the planning stage involves *computer programming* and design—deciding how the information will be presented on the computer terminal, what computer language can best operate the program, what data about each user will be recorded, the sequence and complexity of machine operations, and whether the hardware should consist of a touch-sensitive screen, keyboard, printer, floppy disks, hard disks, a network system accessing a central computer, and so on. A third part of the planning process involves *pretesting*—working out procedural details, accommodating human language and understanding, and revising the program based on the reactions and experiences of initial users.

For efficient planning, we sought to build upon the work of others, uncovering the strengths and potentials of possible precedents for Leisure Match. Reviews of previous

research findings and discussions with people who had developed other interactive systems revealed four types of precedents: (1) interpretive services, (2) directory services, (3) promotional services, and (4) counseling, advisory, or educational services. These services varied in the amount of information they required about the user, and the extent to which they assisted with decision-making. Since the goals of this project include the "matching" of user interests with leisure opportunities, as well as feedback to management of trends in user interests, a composite model of these types of precedents seemed most appropriate. Figure 1 presents an overview of this model, emphasizing the benefits to users as well as the benefits for management. The "inputs" illustrate the kinds of information which had to be collected in the research phase to serve as an initial data base for the "matching" process. The "outputs" suggest potential impacts of the service, which are being evaluated in the initial stages of operation.

The subject of "data bases" is extremely important in computer systems such as this one. There are two types of data bases in Leisure Match: an *inventory of leisure opportunities in Hartford,* and *information about user interests and behaviors.* The inventory of leisure opportunities required site visits to observe experiential characteristics of user groups. Information about activities required interviews with randomly-selected samples of potential child and adult users.

Establish Formats

While much of this information seems simple enough, the need for permanent data bases requires the data to be in formats which will accurately describe characteristics or parameters of each leisure experience, will be suitable for mathematical operations involving relationships between several parameters at once, and will be easily understandable by naive users. Once these formats are established, they cannot be changed without rebuilding the entire data base and parts of the computer program. For example, one activity characteristic is "physical involvement." This parameter is presented to the user as follows.

> Think about the kind of activity or experience you are interested in and answer the following question.
> How much *physical involvement* are you interested in?
>
> 1 Very physical activity (hard exercise, sweating, perhaps running and breathing hard)
>
> 2 Moderate physical activity (could do this in street clothes, feel increased heart beat, but not heavy sweating)
>
> 3 Low physical activity (might involve walking or stretching, but not much exercise)
>
> 4 Almost no physical activity (sitting, watching, or just relaxing)

After the user chooses one of these levels (and makes choices on other parameters as well), the computer searches the data base for leisure opportunities which are reasonably compatible with the user's interests and needs. Each of the hundreds of activities in the data base have been scored on "physical involvement"; this process was complex because representations of activities required continua of scores rather than "yes" or "no" answers to questions such as the one above.

To build an appropriate and logical user program, many pilot studies and surveys were conducted to determine the potential clientele, the ability of a diverse public to understand and respond to questions, and the interests of individuals in using the service. The research process will continue while the system is in operation. Changes will be required over time as the service is evaluated, and as management begins to use the informational capabilities.

Preliminary research determined that the first audience for this service should be children and teens, age 10 to 18, and later adapted and expanded for adults. That a majority of recreation program funds are directed toward children and that we sought to create an educational image for the system was our rationale for using this strategy. Some preconceptions of adults may have presented initial obstacles to adults' interest in a leisure information service. For example, they say, "I've lived here all my life, I know what there is to do here"—a preconception which quickly changes when we ask them how many of tonight's 50 or more activities they can name. Supervision and security for the computers are also more manageable in the schools than they are in public locations which might attract adults.

A final comment on this planning and implementation process concerns time. The advance planning and research phase lasted for more than six months, and then it continued to overlap with computer system development and pretesting of the program. Overall, it was more than a year before the service was "on-line" and operating. Before the project began, this seemed like a reasonable and generous time frame; on reflection, it seems like one crisis after another had to be solved to move ahead at this pace. The system is set up to provide ongoing service with minimal maintenance and updating; however, the cost of continued operations has not yet been assessed and the inevitable need for repair, replacement, or upgrading of elements using new technology will have to be projected. Some private sponsorship or public-private cooperative fundraising may play a role in future operation and expansion of the system.

Significant Issues for Public Access Computer Systems

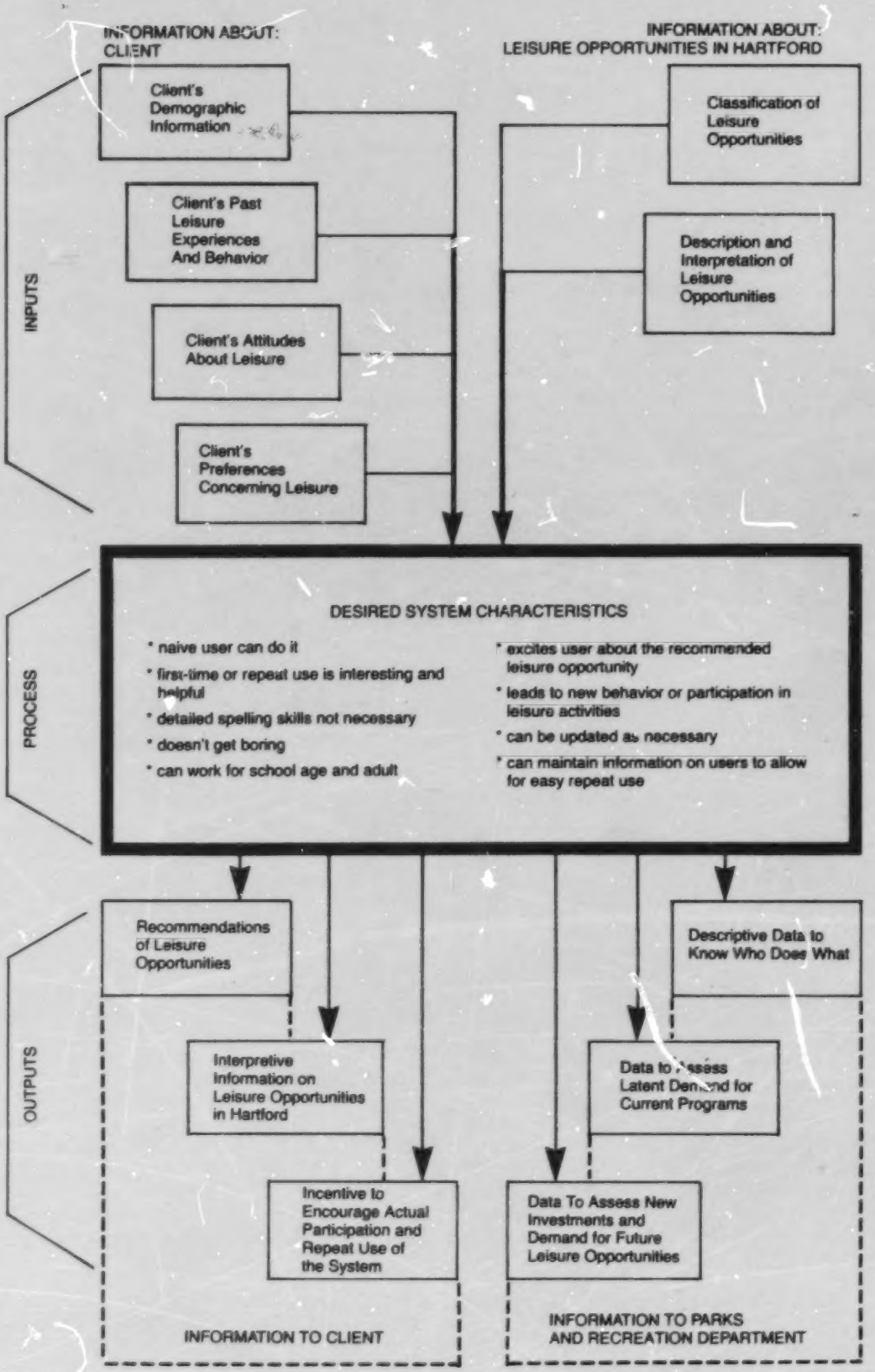
Interactive computers in recreation and leisure services are still in their infancy. Undoubtedly, computers will become more common in management functions such as property and inventory control, but their use for public access is still being tested.

The first wave of public access computers is represented by the touch-screen tourist information services. While these computerized directory services are fairly straightforward, there are still some problems and limitations. The information on these programs is often geared toward tourists' immediate needs and is not likely to satisfy the more diverse and long-term needs of residents. In addition, these directory systems are usually advertising vehicles and as such provide only information which is paid for by subscribers.

Whether developing a directory service or a system which focuses on decision-making among particular user groups, many general issues must be considered.

- *Naive users may be inhibited by computers.* Interactive computer stations must attract the naive or shy user. In a recent study of the interactive touch computer system at the 1982 World's Fair in Knoxville, Tennessee, the National Park Service found that while the majority of people who chose to use the system evaluated it positively, it was younger members of the population, and more often males, who elected to interact with the computer rather than with staff members.
- *Touch screens vs. keypads.* Decisions must be made in terms of program function. Touch sensitive screens alleviate problems of spelling, reduce errors of incorrect keyboard response, and provide for faster response time. But technical

Figure 1. Information Processing Model for Leisure Match System


INFORMATION ABOUT: CLIENT
INFORMATION ABOUT: LEISURE OPPORTUNITIES IN HARTFORD
INPUTS
Client's Demographic Information
Client's Past Leisure Experiences And Behavior
Client's Attitudes About Leisure
Client's Preferences Concerning Leisure
Classification of Leisure Opportunities
Description and Interpretation of Leisure Opportunities
PROCESS
DESIRED SYSTEM CHARACTERISTICS
* naive user can do it
* first-time or repeat use is interesting and helpful
* detailed spelling skills not necessary
* doesn't get boring
* can work for school age and adult
* excites user about the recommended leisure opportunity
* leads to new behavior or participation in leisure activities
* can be updated as necessary
* can maintain information on users to allow for easy repeat use
OUTPUTS
Recommendations of Leisure Opportunities
Interpretive Information on Leisure Opportunities in Hartford
Incentive to Encourage Actual Participation and Repeat Use of the System
Descriptive Data to Know Who Does What
Data to Assess Latent Demand for Current Programs
Data To Assess New Investments and Demand for Future Leisure Opportunities
INFORMATION TO CLIENT
INFORMATION TO PARKS AND RECREATION DEPARTMENT

problems such as static electricity and accidents have to be overcome (e.g., an ice cream cone was dropped on one computer screen and "crashed" the program). Special keypads have been designed which provide a limited number of responses. These can be colorful and less intimidating than a full keyboard. A full keyboard, or at least one that contains the full alphabet and ten numbers, provides for more flexible responses. If a full keyboard is used, the user may have problems with the spelling or typing. Some problems are designed to allow for such inaccuracies while others are not.

- *Security and Vandalism.* Security must be considered in terms of placement and supervision. The kind and amount of supervision may affect computer use. Direct supervision may not only inhibit potential users, but may prove costly. Poorly placed or unsupervised equipment is vulnerable to vandalism: detachable keyboards have been stolen and keys actually have been pried off of terminals.
- *The potential for repeat use has hardly been touched.* Automatic bank teller machines may provide a model for an individualized, long-term leisure information service. Users may be asked to fill out a preliminary leisure profile analysis and then receive a card which would allow them to use the service. In this way, repeated visits and users' behavior changes could be studied. Future tie-ins with home computers and cable television networks are also possibilities for computer systems.
- *Technical problems with software.* Response time and ability of the program to go backward on command must be worked out. People become frustrated when the computer takes too long to respond, when they cannot go back to some point quickly and start over if they change their mind, make a mistake, or get incorrect information. These frustrations inhibit use and discourage repeat use. A streamlined system that reduces user anxiety is favored over a complex program that is difficult for people to understand and use.
- *The problem of updating information.* Keeping information current and accurate can be a critical issue for users. People must receive correct information about leisure opportunities if frustrations and complaints are not to discourage use. If detailed day, date, and time information is kept in the system and a comprehensive data bank is maintained, updating may become a full-time job. We favor a system which gives users enough detail about leisure experiences to lead them to get more information on their own, using Leisure Match information as a resource for activity descriptions and sponsors' phone numbers.

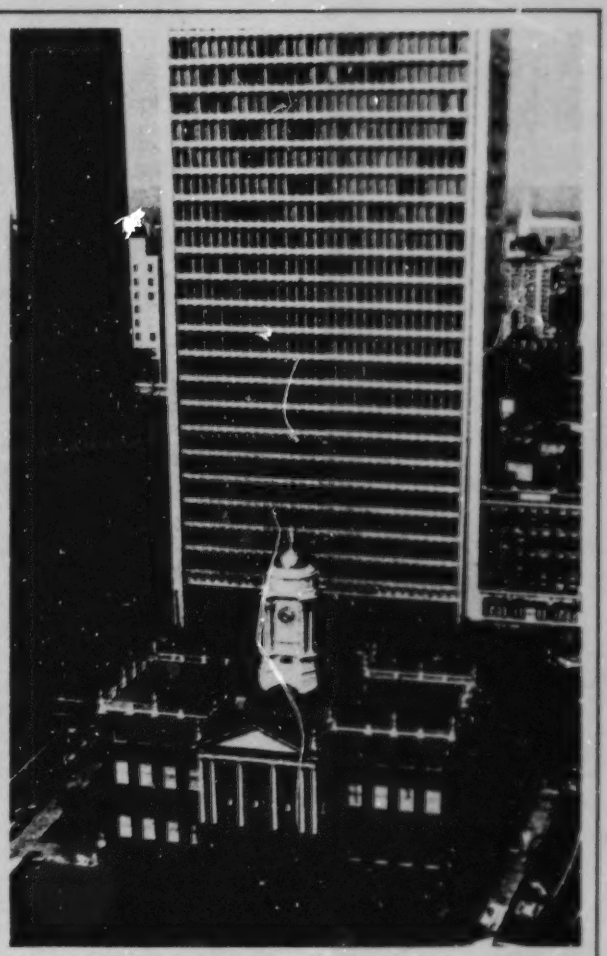


Photo courtesy of Greater Hartford Convention & Visitors Bureau, Inc.

These two buildings, with Hartford's famous State House by Charles Bulfinch in the foreground, illustrate not only changing architecture but changing lifestyle. Leisure Match can help take the impersonal edge off a large city, creating, with 20th century technology, a community of personal connections.

Impacts and Future Challenges

The expanding use of computers in leisure and recreation promises benefits to users and management. Leisure information services like the one in Hartford may stimulate greater use of existing programs and opportunities, as well as serve as an effective planning tool for the future. Other applications may focus on the educational and entertainment value of the computers themselves. In any case, the objectives and potential impact of interactive computers are fundamental to the provision of leisure services.

- Increase awareness concerning the urban leisure environment
- Provide a personalized approach to leisure information
- Encourage involvement in new leisure experiences
- Reach new audiences
- Promote family and peer-group leisure experiences
- Assess demand for existing and future programs or opportunities
- Increase leisure experience quantity and diversity
- Provide data to enable managers to understand their constituencies

Understanding the audience remains a key issue. Sociologically, why do people make the leisure choices they do and psychologically, how do they go about getting information? Many people describe the same leisure experience in different ways; there are few absolutes. Thus the model for Leisure Match allows for this variety and complexity. The program must be long enough to work accurately without becoming boring. Leisure Match should excite and encourage the user to try a new leisure experience. The computer experience itself should be exciting, but a comprehensive information service should also attract people to return to it again and again.

Reference

[1] Executive Summary Report. Evaluation of interactive touch computer system at 1982 world's fair. Atlanta: Southeast Regional Social Science Centre, National Park Service.

Note: The Leisure Match project was made possible by a grant from the city of Hartford, Conn.

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A COMPUTER IN EVERY HOME
IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RECREATION AND LEISURE

KARLA HENDERSON M. DEBORAH BIALESCHKI

Just as the invention of the car immeasurably affected individuals' *physical* mobility and increased their opportunities for recreation, so too is the computer affecting *mental* mobility—with great implications for leisure. Computers have become a fact of life. Virtually every activity is connected with a computer—from reading the newspaper, to listening to a weather report, to making travel reservations. So too, living in the "decade of the computer" will create opportunities for new recreation activities and experiences, particularly those which are home-based.

Shown above is Warner Amex's two-way, interactive QUBE cable TV system. Subscribers in 7,000 Columbus, Ohio, households were able to score the Roberto Duran-Sugar Ray Leonard fight using QUBE's home console with five response buttons. Photo reprinted by permission of Warner Amex Cable Communications.

Despite changes in specific activities, the basic significance and outcome of the recreation experience have remained constant. The psychological outcomes—relaxation, self-realization, escape, challenge, excitement, achievement, enjoyment, self-confidence, and anticipation—are important. The educational aspects of recreation realized in the development of skills, acquisition of knowledge, insight, problem-solving, discovery, and synthesis are continually valued in society. The physical effects—tension release, fitness, coordination, motor skills development, relaxation plus others—are valuable outcomes of recreation. The social significance includes recreation's impact on individual and family participation, recreation-based affiliations, social change, communication, fellowship, the development of community, and social interaction. Spiritual and economic aspects of recreation have also remained important outcomes over the years.

The mind, like the body, is strengthened by exercise. Computer games are a healthy escape because they are both stimulating and relaxing. Like sports, the games require strategy and physical hand-eye coordination.

No single recreation activity can meet all these outcomes. Computers alone will not revolutionize recreation, but personal computing, particularly in the home, has the potential to change the way people recreate. It is likely that personal computing will be only one of many recreational opportunities people will choose.

Changing lifestyles are often attributed to explosions in knowledge, wealth, population, and leisure.[1] Diversity is likely to be the key to future lifestyles; family, marriage, and religion will play a less significant role than in the past.[2] The trend toward child-free lifestyles and "adult-centered" homes is evidenced by the growing number of "solos" in a flourishing "singles" culture.[3]

Work patterns are also changing. Increases in costs have resulted in the closer links between residence and work. The "electronic" cottage where work is done at home is becoming more commonplace. A shortened work week has placed a higher value on leisure and recreation activities. According to Toffler "prosuming"—doing tasks yourself and producing goods and services for self-consumption—is becoming more prevalent. "Technostress," the condition resulting from an individual's inability to adapt to technology, will become a problem for some people. However, for many others, technology, especially with computers, will result in new leisure and recreation choices.

What Home Computers Can Do

Personal home computers have the greatest potential of any new technological development to affect lifestyles. The "massification" of computers for personal use in the home grows each day. In 1983, an estimated 600,000 individuals owned personal computers; a projected one million persons will own them in 1984.[4] Computers are not just for the elite or for hobbyists who build their own. Their relatively low cost and "friendliness" has made them so accessible that by 2000 A.D., it is predicted that every home will have a central processing computer complete with storage capacity, a monitor system, and the ability to communicate outside the home just as almost every home has a television today. The cost is likely to be no more than that of a color television set.

Computers in the home have many "recreational" as well as work-related uses today: catalog ordering, activity planning, home library and educational use, cooking and nutrition monitoring, paying bills, reading newspapers and books, tax and health record keeping, and home maintenance, safety, security, and environment systems. Electronic mail has the potential for widespread use. Children and adults use personal computers for educational drill and practice and to obtain new "on-line" information. Home study on the computer has great future possibilities.

Many recreation activities use personal computers. Children trade computer software as they used to trade baseball cards. With a personal computer and a telecommunications device, one can reserve flights and lodging. Leisure information data banks can be accessed by the computer, from batting averages for major league ball players to snow reports for downhill skiing. Computers can help people use mathematics and programming to create art.[5] From quitting smoking to dieting, the computer can act as coach, counselor, and conscience to promote health and cut medical costs. Some 2,000 people use a new program called "Plato Staywell" to bring about a variety of behavioral changes that cut the risk of cardiovascular disease. With computer programs people can learn knitting, astronomy, and tree identification. A recent Apple advertisement listed 100 uses. Over one fourth of these were clearly recreational—training a horse, teaching ESP, growing geraniums, teaching relaxation, testing new recipes, keeping car records, and providing assistance with meditation.

Home computers with telecommunication capabilities can build new communities by joining together people of similar interests. CompuServe and Source offer opportunities for people to "log on," find needed information, or interact with other users.[6] "Bulletin boards" enable people to assist one another. With a modem, the payment of a registration fee, and a fee for "online" time which uses a telephone line, one can obtain information and insights from all over the world.

Positive Impact on Recreation and Leisure

Questions of right and wrong and values must be considered in relation to computers' impact on society. Not only must the end results of computer use be viewed, but also the means, just as the ends and means of other leisure and recreation experiences are viewed.

Computers have freed people to choose what they will do with their time. One individual summed it up. "The computer minimizes the time I have to spend doing things I don't like to do. For that alone, the investment in time I made learning to use a home computer has had a tremendous payback, because now I'm freed to do the things I want to make time for."

The home computer has helped many people make smarter decisions. Concomitantly, computer use continues to complement basic goals for the recreation experience.

Through games, educational software, and telecommunications, users derive some psychological benefits of recreation. The person using a personal computer for free-time activities must be self-motivated, and have a self-directed course of action. When people were asked why they played computer games, they replied that when they were challenged to beat the machine, it helped them feel relaxed, it allowed them to reach into another world. Like music, it helped to set an attitude.[7] Carol Gordon, a New York psychologist, feels that computer games give young people a sense of confidence and equip them for computer-related skills for the future. Teenagers frustrated by television passivity have the chance to interact with and control the media.[8] Our society is competitive; people need feelings of success. Computer games and activities can help enhance those feelings.

A fine line exists between the educational and recreational aspects of computers. Recreation has educational significance when the potential for learning exists. Computer games can be highly interactive and complex, and thus educational, enabling players to think through a problem before beginning it. According to Zarley, computers can stimulate the mind, forcing people to view problems differently. Well-designed teaching games can help children learn faster by capturing their attention and forcing them to interact with the computer; game-playing helps develop logic and problem-solving skills.[9] Games not only teach, but they also allow the user to make choices within a complex, detailed scenario while observing the consequences of various decisions.[10] The flexible and interactive nature of personal computers, combined with their graphics, animation, and sound capabilities, offer exciting new possibilities for mental exercise. Many games can be programmed to automatically adjust the challenge level to each player. They can provide hints, second chances, and options so as to adjust the speed and conditions under which the game is played.[11] Multidimensional computers can provide a variety of new interactions.

Computers have the potential to make homes the learning centers of society. Computers provide a means for life long learning in a noninstitutional setting.[12] Home computers can change education, encouraging learning in a recreationally oriented environment and providing a wide variety of educational experiences for all ages.

The physical benefits of the home computer are less easy to justify. Moses has suggested that the tendency to play down nonphysical recreation is a carryover of the Puritan ethic: one must *earn* leisure time.[13] Thus many people feel they must work as hard at play as at work. Although home computers do not provide active physical recreation, they are not passive when used in home recreation. The mind, like the body, as Kleiman suggests, is strengthened by exercise. Any activity is worthwhile if it leads people to exercise their creativity, thinking, problem-solving, mem-

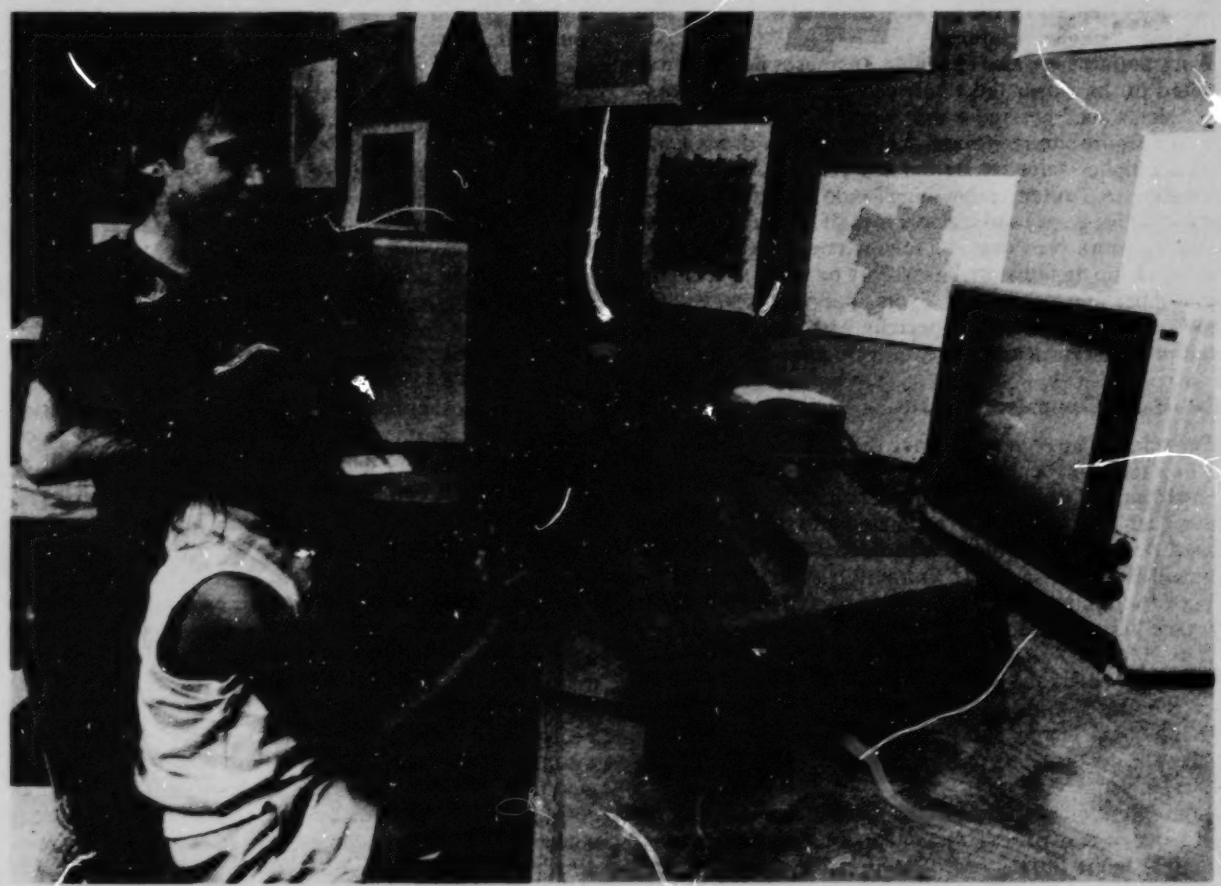

Photo courtesy of the Capitol Children's Museum, by Jim Wells.

At the Capitol Children's Museum in Washington, DC children might well contemplate high technology careers and high tech leisure pursuits in a special "Future Center." Set up as a 20-station classroom, two children or adults can share a computer, proving once again that two heads make learning more fun.

ory, perception, concentration, math, or language skills.

People change physically when they use a computer. It is suggested that computer games are a healthy escape because they are both stimulating and relaxing. Zarley reports that research by Moore indicated that when persons play a computer game they dilate their pupils, indicating that the game stimulates their mind. The heart rate remains the same, indicating a relaxed body. While computers do not directly contribute to cardiovascular fitness, they can provide a means for monitoring physical activity and relieving stress. Like sports, the games require strategy and physical hand-eye coordination, and they offer "the thrill of victory and the agony of defeat."[8] Winning can mean mastering the machine, improving a score, beating a friend, or topping the high on the machine. Thus anyone can experience a measure of success in the games similar to that in many sport activities.

Socially, computers provide a different interaction. While some activities can be done with family or friends, the computer-individual interaction is most common. But telecommunications provide interaction across distances and may help build new intellectual and recreational communities. Jennings suggests that "computopia" can be obtained when collective effort forms a computer community.[14] This interaction offers the freedom to be or not to be involved in a desired level of participation. By bonding across many miles through the computer, such a "community" can ecologically decentralize information and waste less resources and time. Although computers can enhance communication, they can never equal the value of human warmth.

The Value of Computers: Cautions

The social impact of computers has not been fully realized. We must be careful not to be seduced by the fine tools which computers appear to be.[15] A computer used alone has different capabilities than one which can communicate with others through telecommunications.

Computers offer both threat and promise, the distinction resting with how the person decides to use them. Computerphobia can be countered by the realization that people are ultimately in charge. But we must guard against the divisiveness of computer classes: segregating persons who possess computers from those who do not—the *knows* and the *know nots*.

Computers will not build physical fitness or provide warm human companionship. While they can provide a framework for these activities, one must still go outside the home for a variety of recreational opportunities—physically, emotionally, socially, and educationally. Perhaps computers will help us realize how important noncomputer recreation is to the balance of our lives.

The computer will not supplant all other recreation when it becomes integral to the home. It will transform the possibilities we have by adding to them. As a tool, the computer is neither an electronic panacea or an insidious machine. It is a way to get tasks done efficiently and a way to meet aspects—educational, psychological, physical, and social—of recreational needs in the home.

As Gabel suggested of computers and stress management, "It's not the way you get the edge off that really matters. It's that you do it at all."[9] Some day computer games may be considered fundamental accouterements for a richer life. We know the benefits and values of recreation. While computers in the home cannot meet all recreational and educational needs, they will continue to ride the "wave of the future," increasing and augmenting leisure opportunities and involvement.

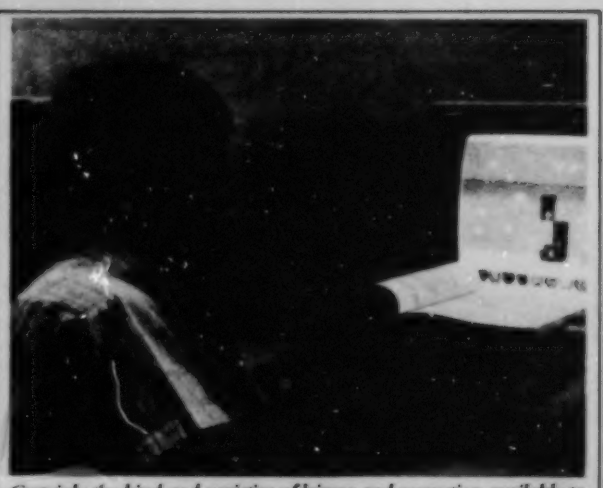

Photo courtesy of the Capitol Children's Museum by Jill A. Wolf

Certainly the kind and varieties of leisure and recreation available to young students will be affected by their facility with the equipment. Here, a young student tries his hand with "Super-paint," a program developed at the Capitol Children's Museum in Washington, DC. With this program, the student uses the cursor as brush, dipping into the "buckets" shown at the bottom of the screen to create various colors and textures.

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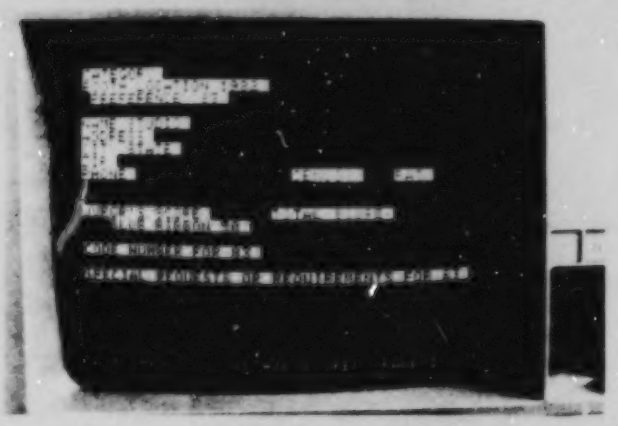

Photos: David Middleton, Penn State

The computer can serve in an active teaching role, freeing teachers' energies for other critical assignments.

COMPUTER LITERACY
WHAT DOES IT MEAN?

PAT FARRELL

In our society, literacy has meant the ability to survive with basic reading and writing skills. And by survive, we have diminished the meaning of literacy to mean the ability to fill out everyday forms which require our signature: applications for a driver's license, a loan, and various tax forms. Some cynics have suggested that a fairly high degree of literacy has been accomplished if one can fill out the income tax return form correctly. Yet the nation is alarmed by statistics which suggest that 25 to 30% of high school graduates are "functionally illiterate" in some areas. Perhaps recent reports on education in America will renew efforts to increase reading and writing skills of all children and adults.

At the same time that reading and writing skills are cause for national concern, the technology of the computer enters. Many reading and writing learning skills require repetitive drill and practice. The tireless capability of the computer to repeat can outlast even the nation's finest teachers; it can save their energies for other critical assignments. Since our last three generations have been both weaned and entertained by the magic three by four box, it is time to use this box in an active teaching role. This has been happening in many areas of the country for many years, while the school district purchase of computers in other areas has been a relatively recent event.

This article not only advocates the uses of computers at all levels of learning, but discusses what is required for *computer literacy* at a time when reading and writing literacy continue to be matters of national concern.

Many new inventions have required humankind to change the way we manage and operate our lives. Change may not have been required, but it soon became apparent that change was sensible. In changing from horses to cars, it was not required that every car owner understand the complexities of the combustion engine and its repair, although learning to change a tire was useful. The microwave oven is a practical time-saver, but few persons know the intricacies of its operation. New inventions in America and other industrial countries have always required first, acceptance, and then, use, by large numbers of people who need to understand how the machine works. Its inner mysteries and complex technology are left to that small group of people who *know* what makes it work. The user simply cares *that* it works—period—and hopes that the warranty is sufficient or that the maintenance contract is reasonably priced. Growing ignorance about how technology works is almost frightening. For a real challenge, open up the hood of a U.S. car made in the last two years and see how much you *don't* understand. Is the microcomputer any different from other technological advances?

Understanding the Abstract Concepts

Every user must master a certain knowledge level about computers. As in any new process, one must attain certain levels of understanding. Let us not confuse working knowledge with literacy. Remember the vonTrapp child's query to Maria after she taught the children the names of the notes. The child asked her, "Yes, but what does it mean?" How the equipment works is like the *do, re, mi* of music. In computer knowledge, this means understanding the abstract concepts of handling information inputs and outputs. In addition, this requires the learner to master certain key codes—such as the keyboard, a viewing monitor and what happens on that screen and why, and storage of information in various locations, both electronic and physical. The computer equipment is an easy and reasonable starting point. The maturing learner can expand this learning as additional peripheral equipment becomes necessary.

Perhaps the most important consideration in the decision to "go" with computers, is assessing how this technology can be useful in one's day-to-day home or office routine. Where can the computer do better what needs to be done? Thus, the most important step is conceptualizing the application to your needs and then discovering whether a computer can satisfy them. Important to this analysis is the ability to recognize systems currently in use that easily could be enhanced by being placed on a computer management program.

Computer Users Have Three Choices

Real computer literacy is knowledge and expertise in the software field. These are the pieces that make the computer concept practical for millions of users. So the decision needs to be made to adapt to software already on the market, write your own, or contract for programs to be written. These three choices confront all computer users.

(1) Getting to know the software is easy at the beginning. Good basic pieces are widely recommended and used by almost all computer users. As needs become more specific, software becomes more difficult to locate or it may not be available at all. Participation in local computer club groups is an excellent way to gather advice on the varieties of software.

(2) Writing your own programs is always an option. This assumes that you have spent the time to learn the equivalent of a foreign language. If you are not currently a programmer, then a major time commitment is required be-

fore you can begin to help yourself with usable programs.

(3) There is always the option of employing someone else to write the needed program. This action assumes that there are funds to do this and no available software is available to fit the need.

In the opinion of this writer, the second choice is the least attractive, almost to the point of being no choice at all. Learning to program at the level of sophistication required in the operation of a professional office would demand at least full-time programming study for one year. At a time when universities are producing tens of thousands of computer science graduates each year, release time costs seem unreasonable.

Choose Software Carefully

When there is limited time to invest, seek out the software which appears to meet the needed task. There are really few processes used in the park and recreation field which cannot now be handled by software available on the market. And for those with no time, but with adequate funds, contracting with a consultant may be the best solution. Beware! Programmers tend to be critical of existing software and usually are convinced that they can provide a better product. This choice is sure to be more costly, so choose carefully.

Most persons familiar with computers have had experience during undergraduate and graduate study with the main-frame unit at their college or university. The abundance of software in the system which could be called up quickly by the use of a few simple codes may have spoiled them. When trouble occurred there was always a computer science or math major around who could assist. Thus, because most computer use at the university was through software accessible via the main system, the computer literate student was one who could successfully access SPSS, SAS, or other packages purchased by the school.

The computer literate of the future will leave the programming to the computer science expert and devote the bulk of his or her time to employing software to ease the information explosion we now are experiencing. The park and recreation field needs to manage the same kind of systems that most other offices do—(1) plotting graphs and diagramming land uses, (2) number crunching in research analyses, (3) system control for personnel, facility scheduling, reservations, budget planning, and (4) records and files. In addition, there is the constant need for word processing and report writing. For all of these functions and procedures a large variety of software currently exists and more becomes available every month.

Join the twentieth century and become computer literate by learning how to use a variety of software packages and leave the programming to the experts. Is it cost efficient to spend your time learning to write programs which may already exist in the software literature? Unless you plan to be a software programmer, spend your time setting up the software to make your home and/or office as efficient as possible. *Anyone* can be a software user and there is little need for *everyone* to be a programmer. A skilled user in a variety of software is the computer literate person of tomorrow.

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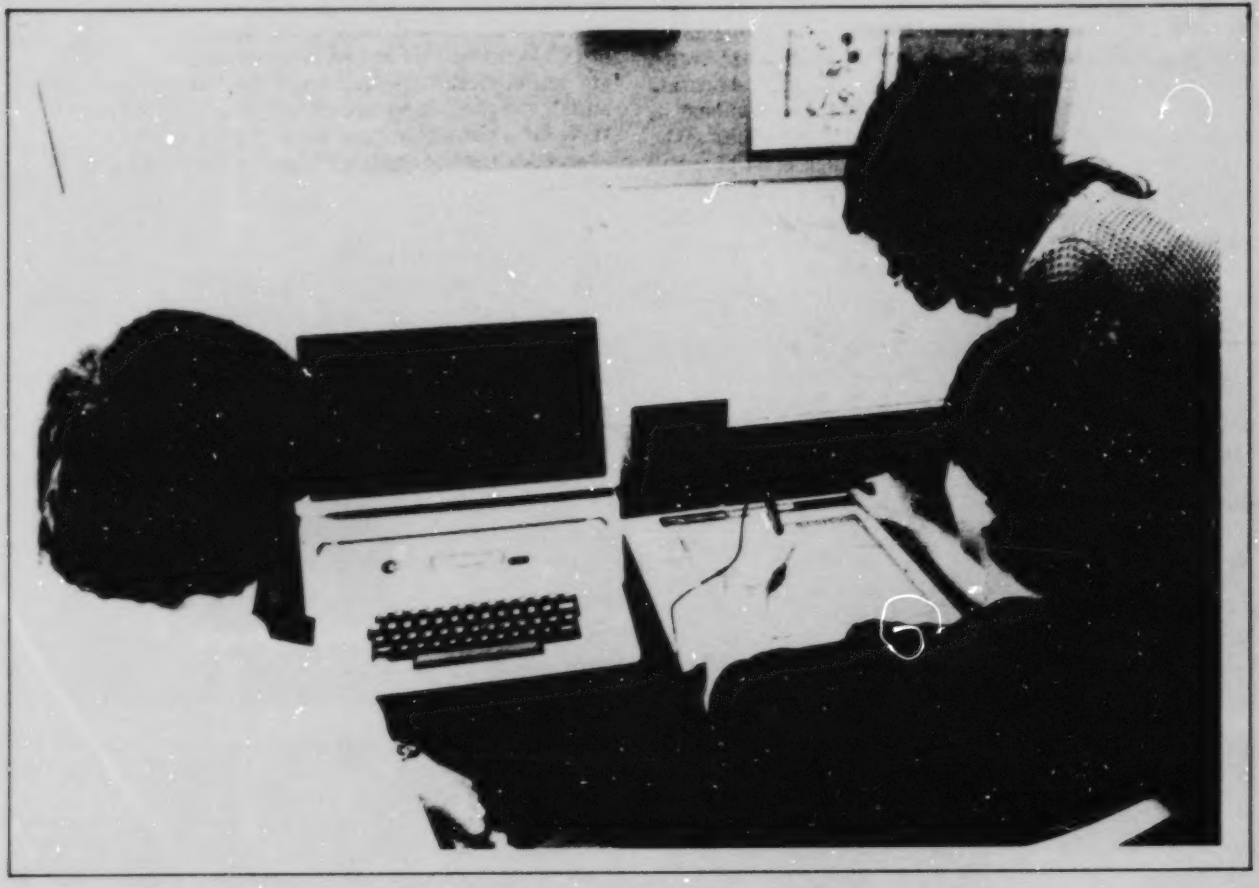

THE SPREADSHEET
TWO APPLICATIONS

JEFF STUYT

A spreadsheet like VisiCalc or SuperCalc allows one to plan, forecast, and develop a park maintenance strategy. The simple applications shown in figures 1 and 2 were done using VisiCalc and are typical for this software. More complex models can be designed—a spreadsheet can be up to 60 rows long and 250 columns wide on the average.

Observe the first example, an imaginary advertising cost analysis for the city of Dallas, Texas (Figure 1a). Publicity for its parks system could be geared toward the readers of several newspapers and magazines, named in the top row. Figures for each publication, such as circulation, ad size and cost for one insertion (in dollars) are typed into the model and normally remain unchanged. The next series of columns shows the number of insertions planned for each publication. For example, Figure 1a shows a situation in which the *Dallas Morning News* will have two insertions, *Arizona Highways,* one.

The lines labeled "Total cost," "Cost per response," and "Cost to circulation ratio" show figures that will be calculated automatically by the model. All we do is type in the number of insertions and total responses and then watch the bottom lines change. If the circulation of a publication changes, we have to adjust the appropriate numbers as well; the same is true for such changes in ad cost. The important thing is that even a single change in a figure will result in *an automatic update of all the other figures* that depend on it. Figure 1b shows how this is done. Assume that we decide to drop *Arizona Highways* from the list because the cost per response is too high ($40). We substitute *New Mexico Highways* for it, and adjust the circulation and cost figures. Because its rates are lower, we can afford to place two insertions. We also assume a tenfold increase in the circulation of the *Dallas Morning News,* accompanied by a cost increase to $95 per ad. We simply type in these new figures on the computer screen, hit the return key and . . . voila: the lower lines and last column are automatically recalculated! In a fraction of a second, we have the new advertising budget; and we notice that with our estimated number of responses, we get more mileage out of the same investment.

Figures 2a and 2b show a similar model, before and after making adjustments. These compare the performance of two community centers, X and Y, for the period 1980-1983. Weekly visits have been recorded for each quarter, and the averages have been typed into the model (from 243 in 1980 through 501 in 1983). In this model, the parts that are automatically calculated are: the last column (average visits), and the "computed ratios" that show the number of visits for a particular quarter as compared with the yearly average. The third quarter is clearly the strongest in Center

Publication	Dallas M. News	Texas Monthly	Arizona Highways	Texas Highways	(max values)
Circulation	40000	500000	4000000	800	4000000
Ad size (col inch)	1	2	1	3	3
Cost for 1 insertion	75.00	275.00	400.00	100.00	400
# of insertions	2	2	1	5	5
Total cost	150.00	550.00	400.00	500.00	550
Total responses	15	50	10	65	65
Cost per response	10.00	11.00	40.00	7.69	40
Cost to circ ratio	.001875	.00055	.0001	.125	.125
Circulation	400000	500000	1000000	800	1000000
Ad size (col inch)	1	2	1	3	3
Cost for 1 insertion	95.00	275.00	200.00	100.00	275
# of insertions	2	2	2	5	5
Total cost	190.00	550.00	400.00	500.00	550
Total responses	15	50	50	65	65
Cost per response	12.67	11.00	8.00	7.69	12.66667
Cost to circ ratio	.0002375	.00055	.0002	.125	.125

Figures 1a and 1b. Advertising Cost Analysis (Dallas PARD)

Year	QTR 1	QTR 2	QTR 3	QTR 4	Average Visits
		Weekly Visits (average)			
1980	243	357	823	409	458.00
1981	297	390	784	417	472.00
1982	301	412	883	488	521.00
1983	325	429	756	501	502.75
		Computed ratios			
1980	0.53	0.78	1.80	0.89	
1981	0.63	0.83	1.66	10.88	
1982	0.58	0.79	1.69	0.94	
1983	0.65	0.85	1.50	1.00	
		Seasonal			
	0.60	0.81	1.66	0.93	

Figure 2a. Seasonal Index. Community Center X

Year	QTR 1	QTR 2	QTR 3	QTR 4	Average Visits
		Weekly Visits (average)			
1980	243	357	420	409	357.25
1981	297	390	500	417	401.00
1982	301	412	475	488	419.00
1983	325	429	488	501	435.75
		Computed ratios			
1980	0.68	1.00	1.18	1.14	
1981	0.74	0.97	1.25	1.04	
1982	0.72	0.98	1.13	1.16	
1983	0.75	0.98	1.12	1.15	
		Seasonal			
	0.72	0.98	1.17	1.12	

Figure 2b. Seasonal Index. Community Center Y

X, with a ratio of 1.66: the next best quarter, the fourth quarter, draws a lot fewer visitors (ratio = 9.93).

Figure 2b shows similar information for another center, Y. For simplicity's sake, we have left visitor figures for quarters 1, 2, and 4 the same as in Figure 1a. But we modified those for the third quarter (420 through 488), assuming that this center is less popular in the summer than the other one. After changing the four figures mentioned above, we hit return and observe the immediate updating. Notice the figures for average visits: they are lower than those for Center X. All computed ratios have also been adapted and reflect a different seasonal pattern. The third quarter is still the strongest (ratio = 1.17), but the fourth quarter is almost as strong as the third (ratio = 1.12). On the average, Center Y is not suffering from such sharp fluctuations as is Center X. The average number of visitors may be lower, but Center Y does a better job in attracting visitors on a year-round basis.

These are just two simple examples of a computerized spreadsheet. Models for standardized business operations are for sale, including cash flow, inventory on hand, accounts payable, checkbook balance, and others. For your own tailor-made applications, you will have to create a special model, which is relatively simple after spending some time with the manual or taking a class from the vendor. You can often merge these models with a word processing package, resulting in reports which contain the latest budget update or forecast. The spreadsheet is just one of those computer applications that become indispensable. Remember those countless hours spent by your staff in coming up with several different alternatives for spending and investing your organization's resources. Two hundred dollars to $400, on the average, will purchase an automatic spreadsheet program that will save a lot of manpower and avoid errors that result from entering countless numbers into the old-fashioned handheld calculator.

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Section VIII

Christopher R. Edginton, Ph.D.
Managing Leisure Services
(April 1982)

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It has been said that the half life of all contemporary management knowledge is seven years. Consequently, there is a tremendous need to continually upgrade professional knowledge in management of recreation and leisure service organizations to avoid its obsoleteness in the near future. Additionally, as management practice is borrowed from business and industry, a substantial temporal lag exists before current management concepts are assimilated into our professional literature and into the mangement of recreation and leisure service organizations.

—Christopher Edginton
Editor

Managing Today for Tomorrow

Jack W. Robinson

The management of leisure service organizations is at a crossroads, particularly in relation to the economic and social structure of contemporary society. Inflation is reducing buying power and lowering living standards at a time when Americans are spending less time on jobs and more in the pursuit of leisure, facts further compounded by the drastic changes projected for the leisure field between now and the year 2000.

Some observers contend that many of the events prophesied for the future are occurring today. To a degree this is true; drastic changes *are* being observed in economics, human values, communications, education and health. As open systems constantly interact with the environment, organizations are influenced by and can influence the environment. Changing societal factors affect leisure service organizations as persons develop a lifestyle that is less consumer oriented, less obsessed with the acquisition of goods, while being more concerned with the development of human potential, the quality of personal relationships, and societal issues.

How does a leisure service manager meet these challenges or problems? Administrators must consider both present and future actions, and be aware of the long-range impact of short-range decisions on the environment as well as on the services that an agency delivers.

The leisure service manager must always manage and improve what already exists, redirecting resources from areas of low impact to areas of high results. The administrator must manage for today and create for tomorrow by eliminating obsolete resources and activities. In effect, the task is to optimize the yield from available resources. But even the most efficient organization cannot survive if it is ineffective. Effectiveness is the foundation of success, whereas efficiency is a minimum condition for survival after success has been achieved.

Accountability, Adaptability, and Relevance

Managers of leisure service organizations tend to constantly reorganize for effectiveness, yet citizens complain loudly of bureaucracy and government inefficiency. To offset this concern, the manager must become more management conscious, aware of *accountability, adaptability*, and *relevance*.

People increasingly hold leisure service managers accountable for the effective, efficient use of resources at a time when their availability is rapidly decreasing. Inflation cannot be perceived as a temporary problem. The desire for meaningful services which allow individuals to move toward self-fulfillment, even with less resources available, has developed a growing demand to humanize the leisure services.

Rapid societal change has emphasized the need for adaptability within management, recognizing that no universal management principles are appropriate in all situations. Research has demonstrated that the bureaucratic method of organization is *not* the most effective one to use in unstable and rapidly changing environments. As a result, leisure service managers must develop more flexible approaches.

Managers must make work experience relevant. Many individuals view work not as a means to an end but as an end in itself, in which nonwork and work values fuse, and personal growth relates to the individual's total lifestyle. Relevant work experience demands interaction between individual needs and organizational goals, and between organizational needs and societal needs.

Drawings by Rebecca Baker

Learning from Business and Industry

Managers increasingly turn to business and industry to learn management techniques. Marketing, management development and management by objectives used in business management must be incorporated by the leisure service manager to prove to critics that the profession and the organization are not inherently unmanageable and ineffective. As in business, the challenge is to make our labor produce goals we set for ourselves.

A successful management system considers: (1) purpose; (2) clear objectives and goals; (3) priorities, including standards for accomplishment and minimum acceptable results; (4) performance measurements; (5) a feedback sys-

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tem to use these measurements in order to establish self-control from results within the system; and (6) a system for an organized audit that identifies unattainable or obsolete objectives. Reevaluation, a continuous need, must consider the changing factors affecting the management of leisure service organizations: education, family structure, population changes, evolving technology, specialization and rising expectations.

Adapting for the Future

As society increasingly views education as a means of self-development, its traditional role as a training ground will change. Unaccompanied by new job opportunities, this new role of education could develop an overqualified/undersatisfied work force.

The family structure also is being altered. Inflation and divorce move the mother from the home to the job site, require second jobs for many parents, and force child care away from the home. This may change the nature of the demands on leisure service organizations.

At the same time, technological change continues to alter social value systems, as increased scientific knowledge combined with new goods and services raises individuals' awareness level and expectations.

The composition and location of the population is changing rapidly. A declining birth rate coupled with an increased average life expectancy has created a new dominant social clan—the elderly—acknowledged in such areas as advertising and employment, and seen in continuing urbanization and major population migration to warmer climates.

While specialization has increased the number of available jobs, it has reduced the linkage between disciplines. As a result, collaboration and integration between leisure services and allied fields has been reduced.

Aware of alternative lifestyles and faced with boring and highly specialized jobs, individuals alter their personal expectations, expecting a higher quality of life beyond the status quo. Although many individuals spend millions of dollars on commercial leisure opportunities, they are still reluctant to support government leisure services through user fees. The effect is to reduce the level of funding for services due to inflationary erosion and reduced appropriations.

To meet the increased burden placed on leisure service organizations as a result of these continuing changes, the urban leisure service manager must carefully consider the following objectives in managing and allocating available resources:

- Expanding leisure services with an increase in participation while realizing a reduction in operating funds
- Developing creative funding techniques through matching grants with the private sector to facilitate increased assistance for program delivery by voluntary, nonprofit agencies
- Sharing decision-making authority with community groups in program planning and delivery
- Increasing the level of community identity with emphasis on operations of facilities and programs by community volunteers
- Expanding services within the geographic community, rather than citywide
- Developing a flexible delivery system which permits spontaneity, creativity, and individuality
- Increasing coordination of community information for programming, services, and governmental affairs

Increased burdens on the leisure services manager may require direct and indirect involvement in the political process. Advocacy groups need to be present and vocal—as in this New England town meeting—when budget decisions are made.

- Developing community understanding of the political process and encouraging individual and community involvement in government

These objectives are generally supported by the findings of a committee of the International City Managers' Association[1] assigned the task of forecasting the future of the city. A review of current leisure literature reflects similar changes.

To achieve these objectives, the leisure service manager must re-evaluate the field's social service foundation in view of the "pay-as-you-go" commercial orientation that the country appears to face. Developing alternative resources, including but not limited to developing new sources of funding, will be a major task for the manager in the future. Original thinking must be given to:

- Acquiring and using land and facilities
- Generating operational and development funding from the private sector
- Using more voluntary services
- Using existing resources effectively and efficiently
- Marketing programs and services aggressively
- Increasing delivery system productivity

The future challenges the leisure service manager to possess the vision to anticipate change, the knowledge to recognize its desirability or necessity, and the ability to design a management system to implement it. The management system developed today will determine the success of the leisure service manager of tomorrow in meeting these challenges.

Reference

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The Organizational Chart: The Manager's Toy

Joseph J. Bannon

Executive business games have proven quite popular during the last few years. In management workshops and seminars, such games are used quite effectively to cover materials otherwise dull or unconvincingly presented. There are other games executives can play, however, which are time consuming, self-defeating, and illusory as to goal or objective. One of these is the "game" of playing with organizational charts.

This is not to say that formal organizational charts have no purpose. Or that time should not be given to considering the hierarchical relationships reflected in them. No management specialist would ever suggest these charts be discarded or ignored. An organizational chart, if properly designed, can clarify a leisure service organization's structure, simplify internal relationships, and prevent abuses of authority. However, many leisure service managers treat the organizational chart as if it were the index to a book—detailed, orderly, inflexibly correct. In such cases, the chart is not analyzed for its relation to organizational reality, but rather the reverse: organizational reality is forced to resemble the chart.

It is a misguided leisure service manager who believes a formal organizational chart reflects, or should reflect, the *actual* operations of a leisure service organization. An organizational chart is a point of reference, providing an overview of how a leisure service organization should function, but in reality *all* leisure service organizations deviate from it. Not only size, but the prerogative aspects of a bureaucracy—red tape, inefficiency, corruption—cause the reality to differ from the chart.

Max Weber, political economist and sociologist, believed the larger an organization, the more bureaucratic it was *likely* to be. Weber's "bureaucracy" describes the more ideal administrative aspects of an organization, not the negative aspects which are colloquially associated with the word bureaucracy.[1] Weber's neat organizational bureaucracy describes the hierarchy of jobs, precise job specifications, hiring and promotion policies based on merit or performance, as well as a consistent and just system of discipline and control. These ideal aspects of a bureaucracy are drawn from, or reflected in, the organizational charts, as well as an agency's formal rules and regulations. But, like Weber's description, they are the ideal, formal structure of a leisure service organization, not its actuality.

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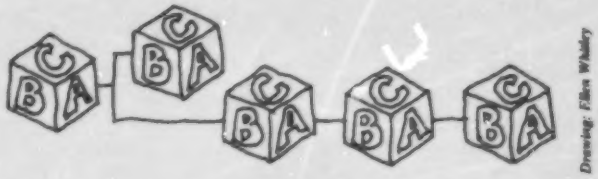
One source of administrative failure is confusing the normative with the actual organizational structure. An organizational chart is comparable to a constitution, providing guidelines *and* limitations on organizational activity. A constitution is rarely taken literally, but is interpreted, extended, or amended according to specific challenges, or to the reality at hand. The least flexible, unrealistic interpretation of an organizational chart is one which does not extend beyond what is in print.



Drawing: Ellen Whitley

The informal organizational structure, which is only partly revealed by an organizational chart, represents how things actually are accomplished in an organization. Any leisure service organization is far more varied and complex than abstract organizational theories or hierarchical charts suggest. Informal relationships, subgroups, and grapevines often provide more satisfaction and efficiency than the more formal structure permits. Furthermore, although staff in a leisure service organization expect and appreciate an operational framework and directives, they are also quite capable of self-direction and imaginative problem-solving.

Regardless of how rigidly structured a leisure service organization is, or how iron-fisted or autocratic its leadership, all leisure service organizations have an informal structure or structures. In fact, one might argue that the more rigid an organization—as in the military, for example—the greater the number of informal substructures.

A leisure services manager preoccupied with the formal organizational structure, modifying or interpreting its relationships as depicted on an organizational chart, is not likely to be aware of the informal structure, or, if aware, may try to suppress the informal structure and force the more rigid organizational chart upon subordinates. Such a leisure service manager equates informality with insubordination, yet organizational informality generally tends more toward creativity rather than insurrection.

Nevertheless, an organizational chart is not a meaningless sham to soothe board members or taxpayers. All leisure service organizations require some type of formal organization. What a formal statement of organization does is to encourage order, predictability, control, and

fairly stable relationships. Without it, confusion, inefficiency, and irresponsibility may result.

Sociometric studies of organizations indicate that organizational charts *rarely* reflect how organizations actually operate.[2] Yet an authoritarian administrator believes a formal organizational chart—as outlined in Chris Argyris' *Personality and Organization*—is built on seven assumptions.

1. Relations in groups are clearly defined by an organization chart.
2. Behavior is governed by rational thinking.
3. Subordinates will always do as they are told.
4. An administrator knows best how to solve a problem.
5. The way to get things done is through use of authority.
6. People are merely instruments of production.
7. Man is isolated, unaffected by group pressures.[3]

Other researchers describe these same hierarchical structures in model form. Douglas McGregor, in his Theory X, describes a formal organization, showing subordinates as passive, rather unimaginative, requiring autocratic leaders to motivate them.[4] For many administrators and workers the formal, authoritarian style of organization is the only one conceivable. In fact, most organizations deviate from this conception, and in many instances, such deviation is natural and propitious. Perhaps with the exception of Weber, most organizational theorists describe, rather than defend, the formal order of organization.

Although staff members require some sort of organizational framework, and most leisure service managers insist on it, employees are capable of independent, imaginative thinking. Staff members daily use varied skills which contradict more formal assumptions of autocratic control. Subgroups and unofficial lines of communication exist in all leisure service organizations. Sometimes called cliques and grapevines, they may actually represent the life of a leisure service organization, for better or worse. It is this reality the game-playing leisure services manager ignores, or evades, trying to enforce a more autocratic chain of command, or modifying paper relationships among personnel and departments.

Even though such informal groupings or lines of communication are not shown on the organizational chart, an effective leisure service manager must acknowledge and deal with these often vibrant centers of activity. The wise leisure service manager is always opportunistic, alert to ways of getting things done effectively, rewarding those who do them, regardless of the dictates of formal organization. If necessary, he or she will change the organizational chart to reflect these more meaningful groupings rather than denying or suppressing what is perceived as insubordination.

A formal organization is a myth; so too are the communications and decisions that supposedly emanate from it. Is the formal organization crumbling; are we all working in underground groups? Of course not! Only an autocratic manager demands rigid and formal control in a leisure service organization. The more flexible the manager, the more he or she acknowledges reality, especially in the face of success.

Any leisure service manager who wishes to understand the function of the informal organization has to revise concepts of traditional authority. McGregor's Theory Y, describes the less-autocratic organization. In it workers are accepted as dynamic, self-motivated, independent, responsible, cooperative, creative, and imaginative.[5] This more informal, participatory philosophy of organization, openly involves employees and administrators in decision-making and communication. Leaders encourage staff to be creative, flexible in work patterns and styles, and cooperative. Bringing the more informal structure to the surface decreases the time previously devoted by staff members to the "hidden organization," while they pretended to adhere to the formal structure as well.

Sociometric studies of parks and recreation organizations have shown organizational charts which have no relationship whatsoever to the actual organization.[6] Informal structures and lines of communication do not necessarily dominate or pervert a leisure service organization; they can make it more smoothly efficient, relaxed, and pleasant for all involved. Rarely would an informed analyst suggest these informal subgroupings be broken up, or the lines of communication disrupted. Of greater benefit is identifying and describing these subgroupings, without disturbing their fragile mechanisms. There will always be petty degrees of illegal or simply annoying actions by workers or leadership in a leisure service organization. To a great extent, a leisure service manager, if informed about these, may look the other way. Perhaps the staff members involved are valuable enough in other respects to make this single failing unimportant. Illegal interference with a leisure service organization's goals should not be tolerated, however, especially in parks and recreation organizations which are under public scrutiny. A scandal in a public organization always has far more reverberations than one in a private enterprise. For these reasons, plus the poor morale and inefficiencies that develop from *harmful* informal groups, a leisure service manager must be aware of them in order to dismantle them.

Finally, it would be naive to suggest that all informal subgroupings in a leisure service organization consist solely of subordinates. Many involve the organization's leadership as well. One has only to reflect on the pervasive impact of the Watergate affair, to understand how far-reaching and high-up informal structures may reach. They may even be intentionally formed at the top for a variety of personal or political reasons.

Wherever informal structures exist, whether they are beneficial or harmful, an enlightened leisure service manager must be prepared to put aside the easier and more beguiling administrative toy an organizational chart can become, and recognize things as they actually are. Understanding the informal organization is not easy; it may take years of personal involvement and trust. Putting aside the organizational chart, except as a point of reference, however, can be a first step towards professional maturity. Otherwise leisure service managers will continue to waste their time playing games, while the real life of the organization goes on beyond their reach or comprehension. Careers are not built upon such toys.

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How Managers Perceive Subordinates

Larry L. Neal
John G. Williams
Stephen A. Beech

Why are some managers more productive than others? Why does one organization perform far better than another? The reason is probably not that managers are making poor decisions to solve their problems or accomplish their organizational goals. It is more likely individual employees are not "turned on" to their jobs—are not motivated and, as a result, are working far below capacity.

Research in private industry has shown that employees can work at 20–30% of their capacity without being fired.[1] Yet an employee working at a low level may pursue a recreation outlet, such as coaching a Little League team, extending himself 80–90% of his capacity. The motivation is that he enjoys coaching and it meets needs which are not being met in the workplace.

Why such a discrepancy between work and leisure energy and motivation levels? The key is that the leisure experience meets the individual's personal needs—makes one feel important, worthwhile and appreciated by placing him or her in a leadership or creative role. The individual's work may provide a salary, benefit package, and job security, but no personal job satisfaction. This discrepancy does not have to exist. To increase productivity in our organizations we professionals in leisure services must understand the essence of motivation. Look at the parks, recreation and leisure service field to determine if discrepancies in what constitutes meaningful and worthwhile work exist between supervisors and their employees.

Many theories of motivation exist, most of which focus on the fact that individuals, during work or leisure, are striving to meet individual needs. The works of Herzberg and McClelland, formulating the motivation/hygiene theory, supports the notion that achievement is the primary motivator, not high pay, job security and good working conditions, as was previously thought.[2,3] Individuals' needs vary significantly based on individual maturity level and on which needs have previously been assured. What motivates one employee may have very little effect on another and could even be viewed as demotivating "turn off."

Changing Motives

What motivates an employee today may not motivate him tomorrow. Maybe the employee's maturity level has changed or a particular need has been satisfied. A need resulting in employee behavior on the job varies from time to time. An employee's needs result in the pursuit of a particular goal and are effected by a changing maturity level. As these change, the individual reaches for higher level needs. As Maslow's needs hierarchy illustrates, people satisfy lower level, physical security needs before reaching for ego and self-actualizing opportunities.

In the same way a recreation center leader must be aware of the needs of those who participate in recreation programs, the manager must be aware of the needs of his employees. The manager should provide opportunities for employees to satisfy their needs and reach for new opportunities that motivate while releasing energy and work capacity that accomplish organizational goals.

Give and Take for Mutual Benefit

In a well-designed job situation, satisfaction of individual needs and of organizational goals mutually benefit each other. If only organizational goals are seen as important, while individual needs are neglected, low production for both employee and the entire organization will result. Likewise, an organization that meets only individual employees' needs to the detriment of its goals will not survive. It would seem that the organization which achieves the greatest productivity is the one that provides a balanced opportunity for both the employees and the organization to meet their complementary goals. Although this concept seems simple and natural, how many organizations operate with this philosophy in mind? As a simple test, direct yourself to key operational processes within your own workspace and answer:

- Are our agency goals clearly stated? Do we collectively know what we're about and where we're going?
- Is there clear and sincere communication between supervisors and employees? Do we know the needs of those working under our leadership?

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- What opportunities do I have and do I make available to subordinates to make them feel important, appreciated and worthwhile?

It would seem obvious that managers would recognize this principle of maximizing productivity and put it to work for the benefit of all concerned. As with marriage, friendship or working relationships, if one party feels taken advantage of, he or she tends to hold back while looking for ways to change or end the relationship.

Current Studies

A review of previous research in leisure management services reveals no study of motivation. A number of private studies have demonstrated the differences between managers' and employees' perceptions of what they want from the job. A study by Gluskinow and Kestelmen asked managers to put themselves in the shoes of the worker by ranking what they perceived their workers wanted from their jobs.[4] They rated high salaries, security, and steady work as most important. Workers, however, indicated a greater interest in a chance to do quality work, getting along with their supervisor and steady employment as most important to them.

Discrepancies occurred in a similar study by Wasiniak, who asked federal human services employees to rank what motivated them.[5] He then compared those results to how their supervisors ranked the same items. The employees rated: (1) the feeling of achievement of doing challenging work; (2) the need to always try to do a good job; (3) doing important work. The manager ranked: (1) doing important work; (6) feeling of achievement from doing challenging work; and (7) the need to always try to do a good job. Again, this study indicated that managers' perceptions of what is important and what really motivates employees often varies considerably. Wasiniak concludes: "... at present our supervisors, as a group, understand very little about employee motivation. ... We are just not doing enough to teach supervisors the skills they need to direct and stimulate employees toward goal achievement."

Nationwide Park and Recreation Study

In an attempt to see what motivates recreation and park workers, the University of Oregon and the City of Sunnyvale, California conducted a study in the fall of 1981. Its purpose was to examine the motivational process in selected leisure service agencies to discover if significant discrepancies exist between parks and recreation personnel's *actual* motivation and what their immediate supervisors *think* motivates them. The personnel involved in the study were "superiors" (agency directors and those at the supervisor level) and their immediate "subordinates" (assistant directors and direct service personnel).

Two different questionnaires were used in the study. One asked the employees to rank which items motivated them the most and which the least. The second questionnaire asked the supervisors to rank their perceptions of how the employees would rank the same 20 items. The measurement between superiors and their subordinates provided a means to determine differences between groups.

Both the supervisors and the employees used 20 cards with the same statements representing various motivators, sorting them from the most important motivators to the least important. In both cases the items were arranged in a 1-20 order. Figure 1 lists the various items ranked in the study.

Figure 1. Median Ranking of Motivators by Park and Recreation Supervisors and Subordinates Using Herzberg's Motivation/Hygiene Typology

Motivation Description	Rank Order	
	Superiors	Subordinates
Doing work you feel is important and worthwhile (M[1])	1	1
Chance to do quality work (M)	2	2
Feeling involved in decision-making (M)	3	5
Chance to learn new things, to develop your skills (M)	4	3
Chance to do interesting work (M)	5	4
Chance to achieve personal work-related to goals (M)	6	6
Full appreciation by supervisor for work you've done (M)	7	8
Good working conditions: hours, discipline, fair assignments, understanding of personal problems (H[2])	8	12
Getting along with co-workers (H)	9	13
Possibility of increased freedom on the job (H)	10	14
Desire to help your agency attain its goals (H)	11	9
Being a part of a team and not letting them down (H)	12	7
Good wages (H)	13	15
Getting along with your supervisor (H)	14	10
Amount of information and feedback you get about job performance (H)	15	16
Job security and steady work (H)	16	11
Good benefits package: vacation, pension and insurance (H)	17	17
Chance for promotion (H)	18	18
Opportunities for raises and other awards (H)	19	19
Being appointed leader of your group (M)	20	20

[1]M refers to Herzberg motivator typology.
[2]H refers to Herzberg hygiene typology.

The 20 motivation statements, broken down and classified in accordance with Herzberg's Motivation/Hygiene Theory, result in seven motivator statements and 13 hygiene factors. Both supervisors and subordinates ranked all seven of the motivator statements as more important than the 13 hygiene factor statements.

Findings

Contrary to the findings of the 1971 study and the 1980 federal study showing marked discrepancies between superiors' and subordinates' ranking of various motivation items, the park and recreation superiors and subordinates personnel rated motivation items more similarly (see Figure 1). This result may be largely attributed to the fact that

park and recreation professionals involved in human service delivery tend to understand the needs of their employees because of their training in planning public programs based on community needs.

Discussion

The findings from this study indicate that park and recreation professionals seem to have a better grasp of their employees' needs than do managers in the private sector. It clearly shows that they do not suffer to the same extent that other management professionals do in terms of not being aware of what their employees want from the job.

It must be remembered that the material presented in this article is based on the median ranking score of supervisors and subordinates. When comparing scores on a one-on-one basis, many of the results do not show as good an understanding of what employees want compared to what supervisors *think* they want. The supervisor should constantly strive to be aware of what employees want from their jobs and to provide opportunities for them to meet their personal needs. This attention should result in higher productivity for the organization and a greater personal satisfaction for the employees. The study definitely indicates that park and recreation professionals, when looking at their overall median profile, rank the motivators as described by Herzberg as more important to job satisfaction which should result in greater productivity.

In a closer examination of the first seven items ranked as most important by both supervisors and employees, one finds that these items relate to the job itself and provide the employees with quality experience, growth and self-improvement, involvement, approval and recognition. The manager who recognizes these items as important to the employees and provides opportunities to meet those needs, is most likely the one that will get the best productivity. In order to achieve motivation at this level, managers must:

- Truly understand their employees' needs.
- Provide employees with an opportunity to meet their needs as they perceive them by performing meaningful and worthwhile work.
- Ask and encourage the involvement of subordinates in planning their work assignments.
- Reinforce and recognize that change, expansion and new opportunities provide zest for life, support and continue excellent performance, and nurture new growth and expanded skill development.
- In a positive way, exploit the interests, needs and desires of subordinates which closely correspond with the agency goals. By so doing the managers can productively tap the energies of employees to mutually benefit the organization and the individual.

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[5]Wasiniak, op cit.

Note: The instrument was subjected to a test-retest correlation using the Pearson Product Moment Method of Correlation. Results indicate the instrument used was consistent at a moderate but significant level, r = .57.

What Park and Leisure Service Managers Can Learn from Japanese Managers

Carlton F. Yoshioka
Ralph A. Nilson
Christopher R. Edginton

Already leading the world in the production of motorcycles, cars, watches, cameras, and in ship-building, consumer electronics and steel, it is estimated that by the year 2000 the gross national product of Japan will be the highest in the world. With few physical resources and a population of over 115 million people, the Japanese have dominated one industry after another on a worldwide basis.

Now synonymous with superior quality and marketability, as few as twenty years ago, Japanese products were viewed negatively as being cheap and poorly made. How have the Japanese, in such a short period of time, become a dominant economic force with a reputation for quality products? Why have the Japanese become so productive? More important, what can we as leisure service managers learn from the Japanese?

Japanese management techniques and strategies have received worldwide attention, yet few appear in leisure service literature and fewer are practiced in the field. The Japanese have employed a number of techniques affecting such broad management areas as decision-making, job satisfaction, communication, career development, and problem solving to improve productivity. Although social and cultural differences between American and Japanese societies may affect the applicability of a given management strategy, decision-making by consensus, lifetime employment, quality circle, nonspecialized career paths, bottom-up organizational design, creation of collective values, and holistic concern for the individual are tools applicable to leisure service management.

Decision by Consensus

The decision-making process in Japanese organizations is vastly different from that in North America. Western society views individual decision-making as superior to decision-making by consensus. In North American organizations, top executives known for decision-making ability and leadership pass decisions down the chain of command. Individuals within an organization depend upon their superiors for direction and/or approval to initiate action.

By contrast, Japanese managers use consensus as a method of decision-making, involving appropriate parties within the organization. This strategy produces a commitment to an organization's actions far stronger than that in North American organizations. Employee motivation and self-worth are increased significantly because each individual knows his views have been reviewed. The resulting job satisfaction increases productivity. Although consensus decision-making may demand more time initially, the full force of the organization is committed to the decision once it has been made.

Quality Circle

A key to improved worker productivity in Japan has been the quality circle. According to this concept, each worker assumes responsibility for controlling his own work, work quality, and productivity. Thus each employee is responsible for improving and/or maintaining the level of performance, work environment, and the quality of the product made.

Quality circles usually consist of two to ten people who meet voluntarily one hour per week to identify, interpret, and solve work problems, determining ways to improve the quality of each worker's efforts. Interestingly, many quality circle discussions focus on building a more humanistic and meaningful work environment, but their goal is to unlock each individual's potential problems within the organization. Ouchi has suggested that, as a management tool, the quality circle will replace "zero based budgeting" and "management by objectives" in the 1980s.[1]

Bottom-up Management

In American organizations responsibility and authority flow from the top to the bottom. Japanese organizations, on the contrary, not bound to concepts of authority inherent in North American organizations, encourage individuals closest to a problem to correct or solve it. Thus, the flow of authority in Japanese organizations is often the reverse of that in North American organizations due to consensus decision-making and mutuality of commitment on all levels within Japanese organizations.

This type of organization encourages an information flow from the front line employee to the top executive, whose major role in this scheme is to develop an environment which stimulates individual worker initiative. The responsibility for organizational success rests not only with the executive officers, but with all employees. Quicker decision-making action and increased productivity result. Time needed to solve problems and make decisions in Japanese corporations is decreased because they are made laterally between middle managers.

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Nonspecialized Career Development

Career development in Japanese corporations varies significantly from that of North American organizations. At the heart of the career development program of Japanese organizations is lifetime training. Japanese managers recognize that lifelong education and development is central to the growth and productivity of their workers, enabling them to stay current and to perfect their skills. General training avoids the problems of specialization that have affected North American organizations.

Employee rotation is an important part of the training process. Viewed as generalists, employees move from one department to another to understand the tasks, problems, personalities, and processes associated with each organizational work unit. This, in turn, results in better cooperation within the organization. An employee of one department is asked to respond to the needs of another department, he or she knows not only the nature of the problem, but also the personalities of those involved. This awareness increases productivity by reducing the barriers that often exist between organizational divisions, a concept which could be applied to the leisure service division within an organization.

Lifetime Employment

Commitment and loyalty to Japanese organizations is a two-way street. The organization solicits commitment from the individual by providing stable lifetime employment. Used by 35% of Japanese companies, lifetime employment has significantly reduced absenteeism and created a sense of family among employees. In North American organizations, an unproductive employee is often terminated without the manager's having to respond to the employee's needs. This short term expediency may be costly to the organization over the long term. The Japanese manager, on the other hand, *must* respond to the employee, aligning employee needs with the organizational goals. Unlike North American managers, Japanese managers must learn to provide a motivating environment for their employees. Termination is not an option.

Collective Values

Japanese organizations are committed to develop collective values, whereas North Americans value individuality and self-sufficiency. Managers who see themselves as autonomous can prompt disharmony and competition within an organization. Although values are culturally determined, perhaps North American managers can learn the importance of creating collective values from the Japanese. Interestingly, the Japanese do not see themselves as rugged individualists, but rather as part of a family, work unit, or organization.

Collective values allow people to work supportively and well together, resulting in a more efficient organization. Basic to this concept is the premise that teamwork and

A key to Japanese worker productivity has been the quality circles, shown below in operation at the Nissan Corporation. Workers gather voluntarily to identify, interpret, and solve work problems. The cooperative nature of the idea makes it particularly appealing to many leisure service managers.

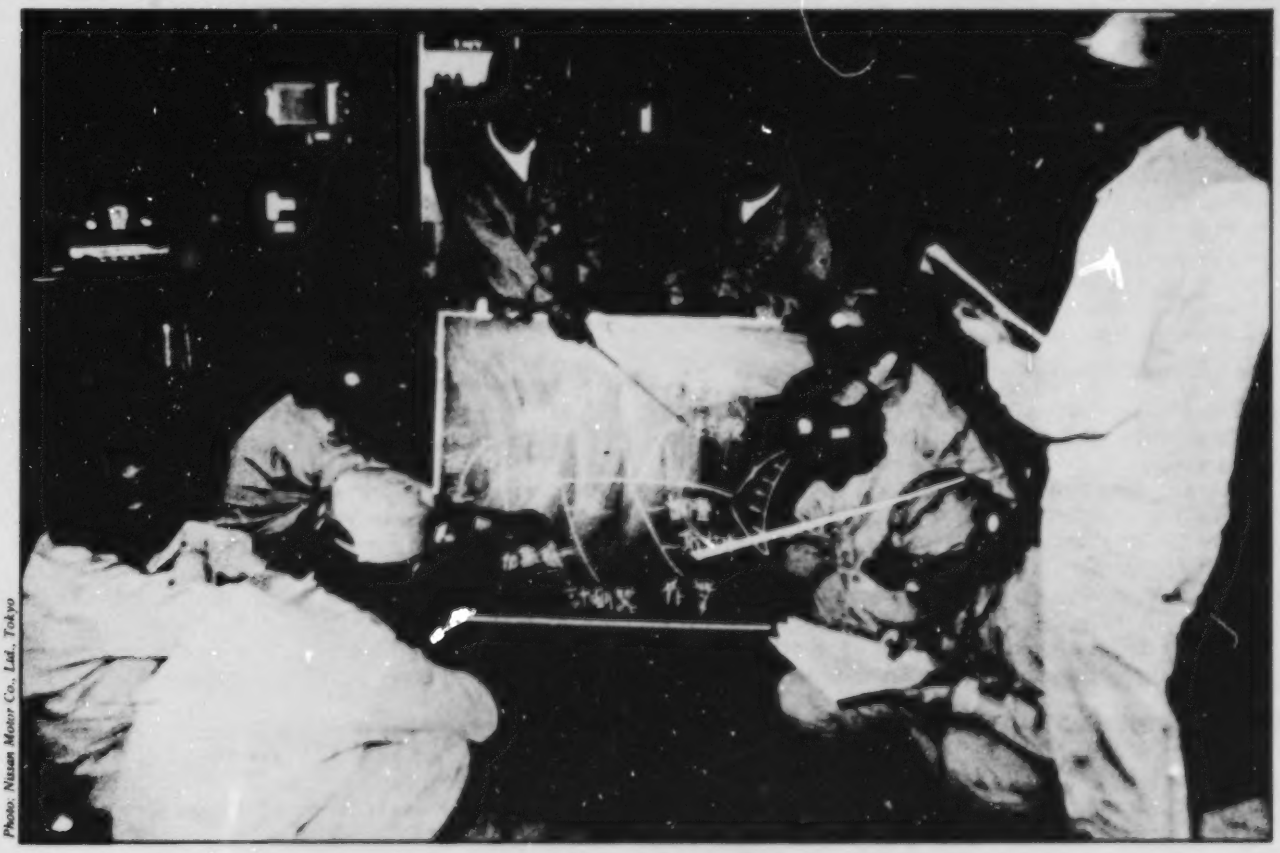

Photo: Nissan Motor Co., Ltd., Tokyo

collective efforts result in economic efficiency. Leisure service managers could use this strategy to improve productivity by assigning tasks to groups and promoting group values.

Holistic Concern for the Individual

Japanese organizations view the employee in a holistic sense. Concerned with the employees' entire life, a paternalistic relationship often develops between an organization and its employees. The Japanese strongly believe that for an individual to be productive, all facets of his/her life as a producer within the organization and as an individual with social and emotional needs must be considered.

Many Japanese corporations provide benefits and services North American organizations often view as being beyond their scope. Recreation and leisure services, housing, proper diet, health, physical fitness programs, and financial assistance are all available to employees. More importantly, the relationship between the manager and his subordinates is very close; Japanese managers socialize with their employees regularly. Not just work-related, organizational associations generate multiple bonds between the employee and employer.

Application to Leisure Service Organizations

The management of leisure service organizations over the last 75 years has been built on a number of assumptions. From the late 1800s to the late 1950s, managers tended to assume that human beings disliked and would avoid work if possible. To make people productive, leisure service managers widely assumed that individuals needed to be closely directed, controlled, and supervised. From the late 1950s to today, managers have assumed that individuals, capable of exercising self-direction and self-control, could help establish a satisfying work environment by integrating organizational goals with personal needs. In addition to increased productivity, organizations today demand new strategies to cope with change.

To apply Japanese management concepts to leisure service organizations, managers must rethink their basic assumptions about people, organizations, and the relationship between the two. Developing of an organizational philosophy to guide managerial action and organization behavior is central to the application of these concepts. Organizations which effectively involve employees increase organizational productivity.

Leisure service organizations can develop a new philosophy by questioning and redefining their basic premises. Developing new organizational philosophies drawn from Japanese management theories might attend to the following assumptions central to these theories.

- People are more productive when they have a common stake in the organization. This is fostered by the organization's long-term commitment to the individual, forming a basis for mutual trust.
- People are more productive when they have an opportunity to openly communicate their concerns, interests, and needs to superiors, subordinates, and fellow employees.
- People are more productive when they have the authority and responsibility to develop and control their work situations.
- People are more productive when major organizational decisions are made by consensus. When their approval as well as their opinions of a decision are sought, employees are more committed to that decision.
- Productivity increases when common values are accepted by all employees in an organization.
- Productivity increases when the employee is viewed holistically. Individuals who are seen as human beings first, outside of their organizational roles, are more productive in their work.

These tenets indicate the interdependence that exists between employees within the organization and between the employee and the organization. From this basic interdependence, a sense of trust, commitment, and common purpose can be achieved within a leisure service organization, so that employees can become self-motivated and responsible for their own actions, including the quality and quantity of their work. It is from this base that productivity can be increased.

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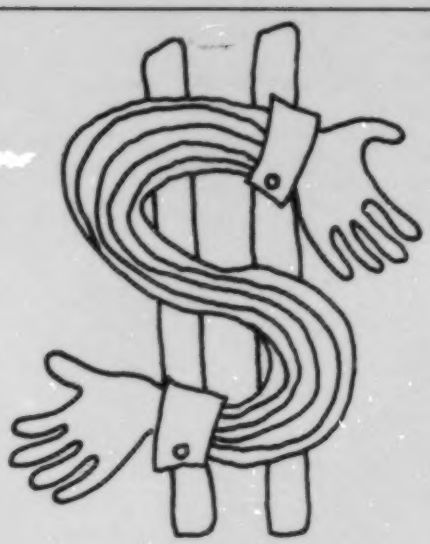
The Business of Survival: Developing a Marketing Strategy

John J. Bullaro



The recreation movement in the United States has finally realized that surviving economically is not all fun and games. Inflation, resource scarcity, and shifting social priorities are creating an unfavorable climate for the leisure service organization. To keep their organizations alive, successful leisure service managers must accept the fact that they have a business, and they must practice sound business strategies, however unglamorous they might be. Marketing techniques such as forecasting, pricing, advertising, selling, and distribution, are vital strategies if leisure service organizations intend to match their services with client needs and their cash flow with their expenses.

Many successful leisure executives consider marketing their top priority. The leisure service organization that has a sound marketing program is equipped for survival. The leisure service manager will be better able to assess needs, identify new markets (or, in business jargon, "user groups"), attract influential community leaders ("power brokers"), raise needed revenue, and identify new problems and opportunities. The manager cannot do it alone, however. The entire leisure service organizational staff must be actively involved in the marketing process if survival is to be assured.

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What is Marketing?

A systematic marketing plan controls the organization's activities in such a way that the consumers' needs are efficiently identified and fulfilled.[1] To thrive, the organization must attract sufficient resources; convert these resources into products, services, and ideas; and distribute these outputs to various consuming publics.

Exchange is the foundation of marketing.[2] It calls for the offering of value in exchange for value. Marketing of leisure services can be regarded as a social process in which the leisure needs of a society are identified and served by the leisure institutions. Having made this assertion it becomes evident that marketing is indeed compatible with the notion of professional services.

The major goal of marketing is to achieve organizational objectives. In the commercial sector the primary objective of the organization is to make a profit. In the noncommercial sector, the major objective is frequently stated in public interest terms: e.g., boys' clubs fight juvenile delinquency by attempting to reach more local gangs. Therefore, marketing is a democratic rather than an elitist technology[3] in that marketing theory states that unless the potential user's needs and demands guide the product or service offerings, failure is almost a certainty.

A productive marketing plan contains carefully formulated programs targeted to expand services, new sources of revenue, improved community relations, and new programs. Marketing plans are also subject to change. The marketing program must be reviewed annually.

The management of marketing does not begin and end with the leisure service supervisor. The whole organization should participate. For example, attracting community power brokers for board membership is (or should be) a top priority assignment for the leisure service manager. The success of this endeavor is directly related to the manager's ability to articulate the board candidate's needs for status, recognition, and community involvement with the agency's ability to meet these needs.

In order for the exchange process to take place the provider of services must be aware of the needs of the user and the user must be motivated to satisfy these needs. Therefore, it is crucial that the leisure service manager have an indepth understanding of that service's market (users).

Marketing implies the selection of markets. Successful marketing demands careful targeting of potential user groups. This axiom questions the wisdom of rigid nationally dictated youth programs such as scouting, boy's clubs, or YMCA's without local input, since marketing literature

suggest the nation is regional in its demands, needs, and styles.

A successful leisure service manager must bring together service design (program), pricing, communication, and distribution into a blend called the marketing mix. The results of this blend can be measured against the stated goals of the organization and the narrower objective of the marketing plan.

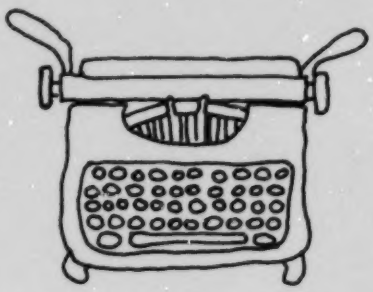
Finally, marketing includes overt selling. This is perhaps the most sensitive component of the market plan, in the sense that our professional integrity is easily threatened by the idea of "pushing" what we have on to some unsuspecting client. Yet to bring the market plan to life, selling must become an integral component of the system. *Webster's New World Dictionary* defines selling as a process by which one gives up, delivers, or exchanges (property, goods, services, etc.) for money or its equivalent. Selling, then, is a specific effort (individual and group) to bring about an immediate exchange of something of value (See figure 1). It is a simple fact of business life. When the members of a leisure services organization firmly believe in and are committed to their work, selling their product should carry no stigma. The leisure service organization wants the sale because it must be accountable to its supervisory board and the community for its expenditures. The organization earns community support only to the extent that its services are being bought and the community perceives the organization's services as effective.

The Marketing Plan

For the purposes of this model, let us assume the leisure service manager is the organization's head. With this assumption of marketing responsibility comes the responsibility to make all organization members active on the marketing team. Marketing is a *total organizational effort.* This also includes the voluntary supervisory board.

Figure 2 illustrates that marketing is a dynamic system with policy, staff, lay groups, program, and facility all impacting one another. The primary (but not the only) beneficiary of this system is the client. The staff, volunteers, and the community at large all benefit by an organization's continued service.

In Figure 2 we see that the leisure service organization's objectives and policies are influenced by the organizational head (marketing director), clients served, intelligence from the market served (gathered by questionnaires and observations), and the lay supervisory board. Remember, this latter group brings both financial support and expectations of how the organization should achieve its goals. These organizational objectives and policy guidelines should determine the standards for staff, design of facility, program content (including user fees, type of promotion and communications strategy such as newsletter, speakers at school, street workers, media usage, etc.). All these factors affect the users. The marketing system should be a complete system in that the feedback from the users (target market) must be constantly monitored by the marketing head and kept flowing through the system. All members of the staff must be part of the feedback system. A process such as Management By Objectives (MBO) can be instituted to ensure total agency involvement.



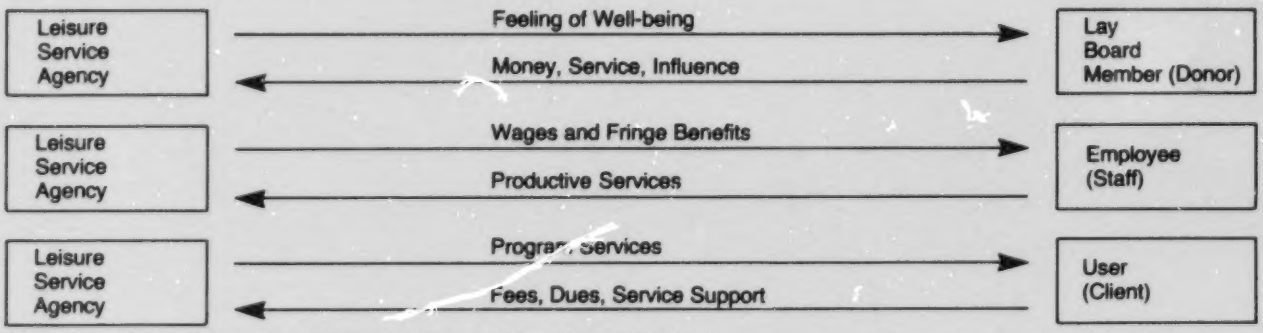
Marketing Activities

Marketing consists of activity steps. These steps are interrelated and should be reviewed periodically. To be effective these marketing activities should be introduced to the entire agency at a special workshop. There must be a total commitment by each member of the organization to make the marketing concept work. Once each staff member sees how this approach is personally beneficial, there will be the commitment to make the program successful. Therefore, the first step is to sell the program to the staff. Handouts, guest speakers, films, and demonstrations will help strengthen the agency manager's dictum. Assignments for input and vigorous follow-up on the part of the agency manager will launch the program. Without this step the marketing program will fail.

To evaluate the organization's current market status, the board and leisure service manager conduct a *marketing audit.* According to Kotler, "A marketing audit is an independent examination of the entire marketing effort of an organization covering objective, programs, implementation, organization, and control, for the purpose of determining and appraising what is being done and recommending what should be done in the future."[4]

It should be emphasized that this audit should include an

Figure 1. Examples of Exchange Transactions



(Adapted from Philip Kotler, *Marketing For NonProfit Organizations*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 1975, p. 24)

appraisal of current staff and an assessment of future staff needs. This outline provides a skeletal idea of what such an audit consists of:

A. 1. Who are the organization's main users? Describe them in demographic terms.
   2. What are the future market characteristics?
B. Who are the organization's major competitors?
C. Factors affecting market
   1. Demography
   2. Economy
   3. Government: legislation, zoning changes.
   4. Cultural factors: values—mores
   5. Societal variables: single family residences, divorce rates,
D. Agency Objectives
   1. Are they reliable?
   2. Are they understood by all components of the systems?
   3. Are they reasonable givers of the available resources?
E. Program
   1. Last program review?
   2. Does program review include user input? How?
   3. Is the program of a local origin or a nationally dictated offering?
   4. What are the criteria for evaluating program?
   5. Who is responsible for program evaluation?
   6. How does the organization assess the marketing mix, i.e. price, distribution (street workers, activities outside area, bus service) advertising, publicity?
   7. Are sales promotions used by the organization, and are they well conceived? (Exhibits, passing out leaflets, speakers bureau, and agency tour assignments)

Once the market audit is complete, an *action plan* should be developed. This plan includes assignments for each staff person (when possible) to conduct some facet of the follow-up program. The action plan will bolster weaknesses uncovered during the market audit. It might call for formation of a speaker's bureau to interpret the agency's work to the community groups, gathering feedback from the users on how to make the program more meaningful, or naming a staff publicity coordinator to facilitate press releases. Reports of individual assignments should be made at a general staff meeting.

The supervisory board must be totally committed to and supportive of the action plan. Unless the body responsible for policy making is aware of what is going on and agrees to the marketing plan, then all that has been accomplished is an exercise in futility. In order for a marketing plan to be effective, appropriate policy and resources must be forthcoming.

The Marketing Challenge

The parks and recreation movement is facing its toughest challenge in its history of service. Whether the field endures intact or is dismantled and absorbed into other disciplines will depend on the flexibility, courage, and good business sense of practitioners and educators. We must adjust to a rapidly changing world which requires new mission statements, reassessment of needs of our constituents, updated curricula, and new tools to meet the challenges of the decade ahead.[5]

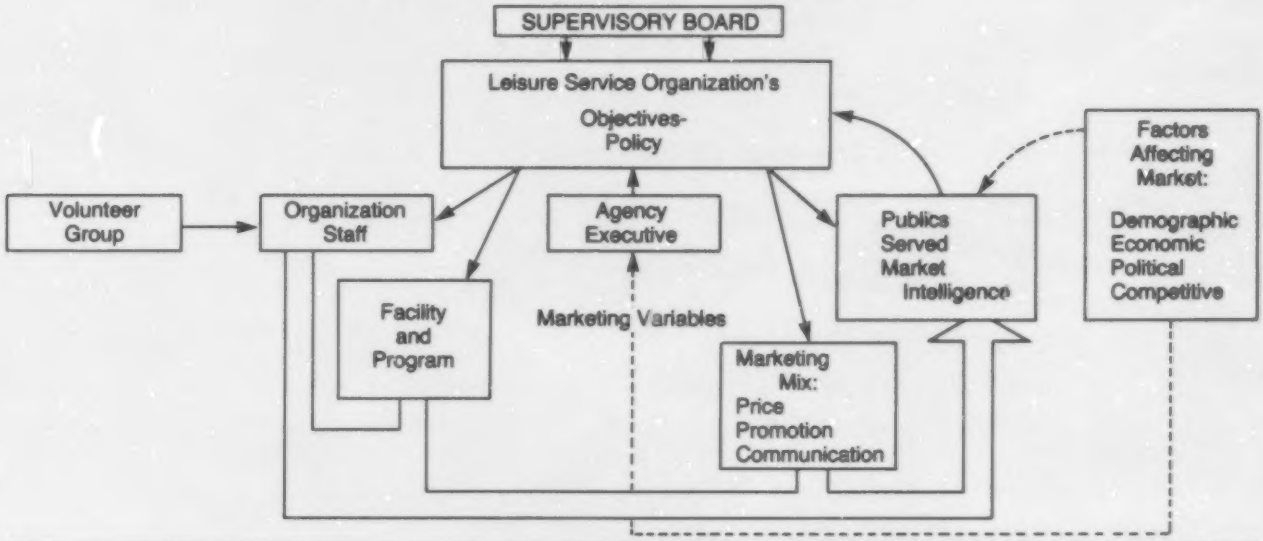
Marketing of leisure services requires an organized search for new answers and a strategy for aggressively implementing new directions.[6] Future practitioners must not only know the how and why of program, they must be able to tell the story, tell it simply, and tell it often. In other words, tell to sell. We must become salespeople for the profession.

Leisure marketing studies project an increasing demand for leisure products and services despite the impact of inflation.[7] Through aggressive marketing, the parks and recreation profession can recapture its place as one of the most important human services.

Notes

[1]Edginton, C. R. & Williams, J. G. *Productive management of leisure service organizations.* New York: Wiley & Sons, 1978.
[2]Kotler, Philip. *Marketing for nonprofit organizations.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1975.
[3]Ibid.
[4]Op. cit.
[5]Yankelovich, Daniel. *A world turned upside down. Psychology Today.* April, 1981.
[6]Howard, Dennis R. & Crompton, John L. *Financing, managing and marketing recreation and park resources.* Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1980.
[7]Our endless pursuit of happiness, *U.S. News & World Report,* August 10, 1981, pp. 58–66.

Figure 2. The Leisure Service Organization Market Model



Section IX

Marsha A. Reid
Careers in Leisure and Recreation
(April 1979)

Supervisor, Administrative Services
Metro Services Division
Austin Parks and Recreation Dept.
Austin, TX

Where are the jobs? In every community! Locating some of the more challenging and satisfying positions may take a creative job search, and selling one's self, one's talents, and one's contribution to the employer is vital. Leisure careers are still viable; careful preparation is essential.

—Marsha Reid
Editor

LEISURE CAREERS IN AN ERA OF LIMITS

By Diana R. Dunn

No matter what the picture is today, the complex recreation service delivery system will look quite different in the future, and one or more of its components will be growing at any point in the years ahead. Whether public, voluntary, private, and/or commercial—employees will be needed; creative, aggressive people with skills and vision will be hired for a wide range of leisure related careers. Demands for leisure services and recreation opportunities will accelerate in this country, and there will be a need for good people to commit their careers to fulfilling this demand.

The 1960s were exuberant, expansive, and expensive. Public services proliferated; public recreation flourished. We reached the moon and discovered "spaceship Earth."

By 1972, the authors of a small controversial book reemphasized that our planet is finite; that if population growth and resource depletion continue unabated, our way of life will change dramatically. The *Limits to Growth*[1] tried to persuade a comfortable public that the Golden Age of Affluence would soon end. Many rebutted the "doomsday book," charging variously that it was too simplistic, not complex enough, or was flawed in assumptions, methodology, findings, or conclusions. Others yawned.

In 1974, incredulous Americans were astonished by lines at the gasoline pumps; the Energy Crisis was identified and labeled. That phenomenon precipitated several new threats to lifestyle, including double-digit inflation. Reluctantly we began to change some long-held beliefs and behaviors. We started to bag our own groceries, pump our own gas, recycle papers and cans, and entertain such formerly subversive thoughts as "smaller is better."

It was difficult to reconcile these seemingly extraneous events with increasingly grim professional developments. We were skeptical, for example, when a major investigation of recreation and open space in U.S. cities conducted between 1970 and 1973 concluded:

> Austere municipal budgets (never enough and diminishing) and federal withdrawal from cities and open space paint a bleak picture. Municipal austerity has had a profound negative impact on the maintenance of city recreation and park system facilities. In some cities, recreation facilities are crumbling, staffs have been cut back, and services have been slashed. Public park and recreation systems in America's big cities are in critical financial condition.[2]

In 1975, we winced at New York City's financial fiasco and the effect it had on the public recreation and park system in that megalopolis. We were shocked when 40% of local and state public recreation agencies responding to the manpower survey that same year reported job freezes in effect.[3]

We acquiesced numbly when the U.S. Department of the Interior published the first of 16 "inferences" drawn from its preliminary study of urban parks in early 1977:

> Virtually every standard metropolitan statistical area (SMSA) studied appears to have a serious problem in providing urban recreation. Whether it be a need for setting aside additional open space, poor access to parks, or the inability to operate, maintain, or develop protected lands, nearly all the SMSA's scrutinized in this study have a major problem (general fiscal) in providing their residents with recreation.[4]

Then in June 1978, some 4¼ million Californians voted to cut and limit property taxes. Richard Trudeau provided an instant analysis: ". . . neither local nor state government will ever be the same again, and this includes park and recreation departments."[5] To be sure, fiscal blows had been dealt recreation in other geographic areas in earlier times, but none so widespread and so fundamental as those created by the newest crisis: Tax Reform.

In late 1978, as harried local and state public officials reeled, President

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Jimmy Carter offered no relief, but declared his budget cuts would include urban and human services. Clearly, public services have entered a new era of limits, destined, most believe, to extend through the 1980s.

Organizational Decline

Public services are not immortal. History and the media remind us with amazing frequency that even governments die. Decline, after all, is as much a form of change as is growth. Our personal experience and our professional expertise has been with growth, however, and our ability to deal in settings characterized by scarcity is virtually untested. Charles Levine has described the new circumstance:

> The decline and death of government organizations is a symptom, a problem, and a contingency. It is a symptom of resource scarcity at a societal, even global, level that is creating the necessity for governments to terminate some programs, lower the activity level of others, and confront tradeoffs between new demands and old programs rather than to expand whenever a new public problem arises. It is a problem for managers who must maintain organizational capacity by devising new managerial arrangements within prevailing structures that were designed under assumptions of growth. It is a contingency for public employees and clients; employees who must sustain their morale and productivity in the face of increasing control from above and shrinking opportunities for creativity and promotion while clients must find alternative sources for the services governments may no longer be able to provide.[6]

Whether dramatic decline (as in New York City or the state of California) or holding action characterized by modest retrenchment, public recreation's Golden Age appears over or at least severely frustrated. Camelot or Utopia was not achieved, but we enjoyed glimpses. In recent decades, recreation became recognized widely as important to the growth and happiness of individuals. However, recreation was always perceived as a "secondary" basic human need; one to be fulfilled *after* "primary" biological and safety needs were satisfied. In the new era of limits, public recreation, probably largely by coincidence, has become superfluous and expendable to both citizens and to governments. It is simply not regarded as an essential service. One must conclude that the future of public recreation seems certain to be characterized by little or no growth, and by scarcity, increasing complexity, and turmoil.

The Affected

After Proposition 13 passed in California, many affected groups became identifiable. They reflect patterns endured by professionals in other states and cities which have experienced severe budget crises, and therefore, have general rather than California-specific features.

Cutbacks in personnel rosters, even closures of whole departments, resulted in personal tragedies for terminated recreation professionals committed to what they had regarded as secure public service careers. Public agencies did not mimic Boeing, which, when that industry suffered severe layoffs, provided counseling and other services for displaced employees. Severance services were and are simply not in place; RIF'd (reduced in force) recreation personnel were and are usually "on their own." The California Park and Recreation Society responded with an emergency Job Opportunity and Placement Program, however, which offers a model for similarly affected states.[7]

A second group might be called the "disillusioned." Still employed, they question a continued career commitment to public service. Feeling insecure and maligned, some are moving to other sectors—or perhaps greener geographic pastures. Typically, it is the marketable "cutting edge" person who can make such moves—those no agency or profession can afford to lose.

Another nervous group—if still on payrolls—are the "last hired" who are afraid of becoming "first fired." Affirmative action considerations during the past decade often mean this group has a higher percentage of minority, women, and disabled employees. Toeholds will be lost at a very inauspicious time. Historically, records show that the percentage of women in public recreation has declined dramatically during periods of recession and depression, and there is no reason to doubt the continuation of this tradition. Young people are also extremely vulnerable when seniority is an issue in cutbacks; their young ideas are going out with layoffs at a time when public service agencies need all the creative and energetic talent they can muster. There are many who predict that the labor-intensive face-to-face recreation leader and specialist (often new and young, and among the "last hired") will disappear from the public sector recreation milieu. Indicators certainly are pointing in this direction.[8]

Recently, therapeutic recreation has been a very promising and attractive career for many young entry-level people. To the extent that therapeutic recreation positions are in the public sector, however, these jobs are threatened no less than are other recreation services supported at state and local levels, perhaps even more. They were viewed as "frills" and are only now making significant gains in acceptance in many public agency budgets. In 1975, employees with a primary responsibility in service to the handicapped accounted for a bare 2% of the recreation employees in the public sector. Whether clinical or community, therapeutic recreation may be stonewalled just as hope was coming into view for many special population groups. Jobs funded federally will hold up better against the tide for awhile, but at some point, they will soften too.

A vitally concerned group is, naturally, composed of students in recreation and park curricula—more than 37,500 in the United States in 1978. For some time, it has been obvious that the vast majority were not going to find career opportunities in the public sector—the sector in which some 95% of all identifiable recreation professionals were employed in 1975. (In 1975, there were only 13,207 jobs in local public recreation which required a college education.[9] In 1976, Christine Badger outlined a dismal reality: "... the majority of public park and recreation agencies are already developed, and the major causes of position vacancies is now department growth and attrition. This will not ab-

sorb the 34,000 students currently enrolled in park and recreation curricula."[10]

In some respects, that depressing picture has become even grimmer. Most recently, students and others hoping to enter public recreation are angered by the double-edged sword of CETA (Comprehensive Employment and Training Act) employees taking jobs from them, and frustrated further by the profession's plea for volunteers to operate programs and facilities—hence to eliminate former entry-level jobs as an austerity response. "Giving keys to the constituency" may be necessary and defensible, but it is also job threatening to present and would-be careerists.

As most are in and/or have come from public sector experiences and orientations, many recreation educators may need extensive retreading as public recreation declines as a viable and likely career sector for future graduates. Curriculum changes will necessitate not only new skills for future graduates, but new attitudes and philosophies as well. Future curriculum will very likely be less sector-specific and more interdisciplinary. Further, it seems entirely possible that in many institutions, undergraduate recreation programs may be an algamated into broader human delivery service curriculum designed to prepare students for a wider array of job options. Discipline and professional focusing would generally be deferred to the graduate level. (Liberal arts may rise again!)

Implications abound for professionals preoccupied with building higher and stronger walls around less and less territory vis-a-vis accreditation, registration, and related mechanisms. The clear message: uncircle the wagons!

A Fundamental Irony

It is necessary to try to explain the growing gap between increasing leisure and recreation demands and needs on the one hand, and the declining or no-growth status of career opportunities in public recreation on the other. When the column listing growing population, increased leisure time, more needful special populations and constituencies, higher participation rates, softening work ethic, and other indicators is summed, the total implies growth. But when citizen support for public recreation services is examined, the recent past, present and foreseeable bottom line is *decline*.

One explanation of the growing discrepancy may be that the general public does not understand and will not continue to sanction or support the peculiar four-part leisure delivery service system that has "growed like Topsy" during this century in the United States. Another thesis could be that recreation is simply a noncombatant innocently caught in the deadly cross fire of inflation, the energy crunch, and tax reform.

In any event, there is growing disparity between what public recreation agencies are prepared to do, and what the public wants done. The resolution will very likely be a significant realignment of the components of the nation's recreation delivery system. For while public recreation is definitely confronted by limits, little evidence suggests that private and commercial recreation are facing similar constraints. To the contrary, indicators point to accelerated growth of recreation in the profit sector.

The Public Dilemma

Traditionally, public recreation agencies have espoused altruistic values and social goals, while private and commercial enterprises have been motivated by profit incentives. Recreation "professionals" have viewed *only* public (and sometimes voluntary) efforts as legitimate aspects of the "recreation movement."[11] They have deliberately circumscribed a smaller and smaller part of the whole of recreation, and become more and more possessive and territorial about it.

As the "recreation movement" is threatened, the most logical straw *is* the one nearest at hand—private and commercial recreation enterprise. Those sectors *now* comprise at least 98% of all leisure service delivery and spending in the United States and include equipment manufacturing and marketing, operation of leisure oriented businesses, the entertainment industry, and an infinite array of other enterprises. It appears they may unintentionally make further inroads on the beleaguered public "recreation movement." Depending on the rapidity and extent of erosion, "professionalism" as it has been defined and defended by those in the movement may be an anachronism. Conferences and committees on accreditation, certification, licensing, registration, ethics, and the like may have been exercises in futility.

While commercial recreation and the "recreation movement" have never been bedfellows, new relationships will be established; private and commercial recreation career possibilities have understandable appeal in times of public service cutbacks. Yet practitioners and students imbued with a service philosophy sometimes find the business ethic incompatible or even repulsive. Of equal importance, business skills are often undeveloped or even foreign to the education and experience of the individual in the public sector. While a few curricula are shifting into a public administration orientation (some think from the frying pan into the fire), no rush to a business administration model has been reported.

The desperate embracing of a quasi-business model shored up by fees and charges will very likely change the nature of public recreation agencies and their services. Public agencies in California made knee-jerk responses to Proposition 13 by making increases in existing fees and charges ranging from 50 to 400%. As the very young, poor, old, and disabled are outpriced in the new public marketplace, the emerging clientele will be "different"—how, will be a mystery and a challenge for awhile.

The Public Mission

Public recreation has never taken time to systematically define or justify its existence; tax reform is providing a compelling reason to remedy these deficiencies. While the effort will be painful, the results should provide a more comfortable and secure niche for those contemplating public leisure careers in the future as well as for those already committed to such careers.

The mission and role of public sup-

ported recreation needs redefinition in light of retrenchment and tax reform. Deliberate and selective cutbacks are infinitely preferable to across-the-board or reduction-by-attrition management. Public recreation service should ideally be defined by "what can be purposefully retained," not by "what succumbs conveniently."

In order for public recreation to survive in an era of limits, two conditions must be shown to exist: (1) that public recreation is involved in the modern world and (2) that the quality of life would be substantially diminished for all or for some major subpopulations if public recreation ceased to exist.

There is today no evidence that the quality of life in the United States would diminish appreciably nor improve substantially if dramatic changes occurred in the amount or kind of public recreation opportunities afforded residents. In an era of organizational decline and cutback management, where "zero-based rethinking of things" may be the only suitable stance, the absence of better information regarding the contributions and values of public recreation continues to be both morally indefensible and increasingly a threat to its very survival.

The arrogant era when the public quietly paid for a service which claimed to be "an end in itself" is dead. If there is not found a more definite relationship between recreation services and the success of cities and the biological, environmental, and social/psychological health of their people, these services will die. For an era of limits, scarce public resources will not and should not be committed to programs and projects whose benefits are mysterious and/or unsubstantiated. Documentation of positive linkages between specific services and specific outcomes which are valued by society is the only viable way to ensure selective component survival in an era of limits.

The complex recreation delivery system may look quite different in the near future! One scenario leads inexorably through a series of vignettes beginning with (1) budget cuts, (2) increase of fees and charges, (3) elimination of the poor, old, and disabled, (4) private sector anger because of competition, (5) transfer of all or some services from public to private sector, (6) departure of some public sector employees into new private sector services, (7) unemployment for non-transferrable public employees.

Another scenario might conclude with public recreation serving *only* "special populations" and all others being served by private and commercial enterprises, a modified European model.

To move systematically toward meeting the twin challenges of mission identification and service justification, a substantial commitment must be made by a qualified, credible, and respected group of people. They must realize that the fruits of their labors will result in pounding nails in the coffin of public recreation as it has existed; a mirror-image of the status quo will not emerge as the most feasible future scenario. Conclusions will mandate changes, some of which will no doubt be extremely profound and painful to implement. While the effort is fraught with peril, avoidance would be an abrogation of the responsibility of the profession. It would be an admission of helplessness more appropriate to a group of technicians than to a group which aspires to professional status and recognition.

Meantime, the challenge of an era of limits will undoubtedly result in better public recreation services; most of what survives will be of higher than average quality. Those who pursue careers in this new milieu should possess extra amounts of several important requisites: competence, flexibility, mobility, and luck. Perhaps the recreation careerist of the future will be the ultimate Renaissance person—a facilitator who will "help people do their leisure thing." The notion of a profession dedicated to enabling recreational independence is noble.[12] Tax reform may encourage its emergence.

Future Careers

Most assuredly and optimistically, one or more of the leisure service delivery system components will be growing at any point in the future. Whether public, voluntary, private, and/or commercial, employees will be needed and creative, aggressive people with skills and vision will be hired for a wide range of leisure related careers. If the traditional "recreation movement" will reach out, the time is right for it to have a more significant impact on leisure and recreation in America than it ever has had before. The Golden Age could be in the future, not the past. If to the contrary, public recreation professionals fail to seize the opportunity for change, decline is imminent.

For after all, it is the relative weighting of the delivery system components which is at the crossroads. Demands for leisure services and recreation opportunities will accelerate in this country, and there will be an ever-increasing need for good people to commit their careers to fulfilling this demand. In this context, leisure careers have an incredibly bright future.

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[1]Donella H. Meadows, *et al., The Limits to Growth: A Report for the Club of Rome's Project on the Predicament of Mankind*, Universe Books, New York, NY, 1972.

[2]Diana R. Dunn, "Leisure Resources in America's Inner Cities," *Parks & Recreation*, March 1974, p. 56.

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[4]U.S. Department of the Interior, *A Preliminary Urban Parks Study*, Washington, DC, January 1977, pp. 11-12.

[5]Richard Trudeau, "The Changing Role of Public Information—After Jarvis-Gann," *Parks & Recreation*, October 1978, p. 23.

[6]Charles H. Levine, "Organizational Decline and Cutback Management," *Public Administration Review*, July/August 1978, p. 316.

[7]"Prop 13 Job Placement Program," CPRS *Leisure Lines*, August 1978, p. 4.

[8]Diana R. Dunn, "Women in Recreation," *Parks & Recreation*, July 1977, pp. 26-27.

[9]*Ibid*, p. 28.

[10]Christine C. Badger, "Public Personnel," *Parks & Recreation*, July 1976, p. 82.

[11]Richard Kraus, *Recreation and Leisure in Modern Society*, Goodyear Publishing Company, Inc., Santa Monica, CA, 1978, p. 278.

[12]Diana R. Dunn, "Dynamic Programming: Enabling Recreational Independence," *JOPER*, November-December 1973, pp. 35-38.

LIMITS OF ALTRUISM:
LEISURE CAREERS IN CRISIS

By James F. Murphy

Existing bases for examining the recreation and leisure service career potential provide only a limited understanding of the future possibilities of professional service. This article suggests we are on the threshold of unlimited leisure service careers and challenges us to examine a humanistic enabling approach to career development.

The recreation and park movement in the United States has reached a new era—the second hundred years of organized recreation service in communities. The first hundred years saw a principal orientation of agencies and communities devoting their efforts to the development of a sound operation in which to deliver programs and services and the adoption of a philosophy of service in which to justify play as a worthwhile, distinguishing facet of life. The next one hundred years may see the recreation experience serving as an opportunity complex for individuals seeking personal liberation and fulfillment and recreation becoming recognized and incorporated as an essential, interrelated part of one's total development.

We are on the threshold of a period in which seemingly unlimited opportunity beckons aspiring career professions to pursue a vocation in recreation and leisure service. However, while the recreation and park movement may serve as a vehicle for the realization of a highly diverse, personally fulfilling adventure and risk oriented forms of expression for individuals and groups, it may need to serve as a monitor for certain forms of leisure behavior and consumer products which may be detrimental or harmful to the quality of life.

Eras of Development

The recreation and park movement has passed through several stages of professional development. Initially the movement grew out of humanitarian concerns of dedicated private citizens and social workers who saw the need to assist urban dwellers overcome the problems of overcrowding, poverty, and lack of recreation opportunity and who led social reform to improve the blighted conditions of city life. Recreation was seen primarily as a means of building character. During this same period of time (in the late 19th century) a corollary phase was occurring represented by the concerns of conservationists and park professionals for pleasant, passive surroundings in which people could enjoy leisure at their own pace.

Following the turn of the century and the formation of the Playground Association of America in 1906, a phase emerged which was dominated by the propagation of an egalitarian "recreation for all" principle. It stimulated an almost compulsive concern for programs and activities and the legitimatizing of local government responsibility for recreation and leisure service. Organized recreation was characterized by a demand for activities of amusement and diversion.

This phase essentially existed until the late 1950s and early 1960s, when the tumultuous period of social upheaval and civil unrest brought the movement back to issues of social concern and commitment to the provision of recreation designed to meet important social needs of people. This phase was shared with an outdoor recreation boom in which there was a tremendous expansion of state and federal provision of camping, water sports, and general vacation travel.

During the middle and late 1960s with the evolution of dissatisfaction over an unpopular war, corrupt government, and a desire for personal liberation being expressed by more

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and more people, a human developmental phase emerged. This most recent period is characterized as being focused on the individual within an ecological framework and is concerned primarily with facilitating the growth and development of the whole person.

The years ahead may yield a stage of professional development which will be severely constrained by excesses stemming from abuses of government, communities, and individuals seeking to promote *more* or *increased* satisfaction as represented in material consumption. The recreation and park movement has not been immune to the forces of social change. The social revolution which has altered the condition and consciousness of women, gays, the poor, the disabled, the elderly, racial and ethnic minorities, bored workers of all types, and the young has led and will continue to lead to significant changes in the recreation and leisure service field as well.

In the years ahead, the recreation and leisure service field will reflect social changes by shifting program orientation, adopting a broader and more flexible service perspective, and accepting a philosophy that accentuates the dignity and worth of each individual and strengthens the interrelationships of all human experience. The recreation and leisure service field will focus its efforts on encouraging self-generated, nonconsumptive, spontaneous leisure activities as part of our lifestyle in the future.

Ideological Transition

Social change has been most readily evidenced by shifts in program orientation, the adoption of a broadened and more flexible service perspective, altered role models of professional staff, new career areas, and shifting emphasis in university curricula. An important catalyst within the recreation and park movement that helped accelerate the reexamination of its direction was the Gray-Greben position paper, "Redefining Leisure: An Action Plan for the Recreation and Park Movement," which was presented at the National Congress for Recreation and Parks in Washington, D.C., in 1973. A series of workshops, forums, and action plans followed as a result of the recognition that the "activity" centered service delivery approach that had guided the movement for over 50 years was no longer a useful and relevant operational model of service. It was articulated by Seymour Greben and David Gray that the end of a recreation experience was not activity, that it was merely a means to fulfillment of a full range of potential needs—the end of recreation experience they stated was human development.

The increasing number of leisure service agencies which are embracing a humanistic philosophy and adopting a developmental operational approach to program delivery is a recognition that there is a broader continuum of providing leisure opportunities and an ideological shift in service concept. A humanistic perspective recognizes the dignity and worth of each individual and views the whole person and the interrelationship of human experience.

The cafeteria style, activity-centered program approach to leisure service delivery which attempts to provide a full array of activities to members of a community tends to be based on a growth budget model and a materialistic value system to sustain it. We are approaching the time when the "good life" can no longer be defined in terms of increasing material wealth and consumption of leisure activities which deplete energy and nonrenewable resources. Considering the extent to which the notion of continued growth in material affluence permeates our personal and social values, lifestyles, and institutions, the transition to a steady state society could cause serious problems as well as create unprecedented opportunities.

It would seem that an important role for recreation and leisure service personnel in the future would be to recognize the personal and societal conditions that would facilitate and encourage self-generated, nonconsumptive, spontaneous leisure and make this a viable alternative to leisure activities dependent upon material goods and energy. A general shift in people's values, lifestyles, and personal rhythms is resulting in changing laws (e.g., adult "recreation" sex is legal in some states; decriminalization of pot laws; constitutional guarantees for gay people; extension of mandatory retirement age to 70; the rights of women to terminate the life of an unborn child; the guarantee of civil rights of disabled people; shifting work days, weeks, years, and careers to coincide more directly with individual preferences for work/leisure/education/family patterns, etc.).

There is increased public tolerance of diverse (even deviant) forms of expression, resulting in an increased recognition of a growing necessity for widened avenues of individual and group leisure behavior emanating from the desire by discriminated, nonaligned people (individuals lacking identity and support from the dominant society) for fulfillment of their human rights. The old bases of individual distinction, including age, gender, religion, family status, and occupation, no longer serve as a determinant for grouping and delineating work, leisure, education, and family patterns.

An evolving perspective, one based on leisure symmetry, is replacing an era of arbitrary forms of individual distinction in which each person must be granted the opportunity to participate in any phase of life and treated impartially without regard to former discriminatory prestige and social class divisions, sex role segregation, or other arbitrary social and/or physical restrictions. It is the leisure milieu which emerges as an important vehicle for the realization of human rights since the contexts of stigma, secrecy, and repression have often prevented their extension into work and civic life for various nonaligned groups. The leisure professional of the future must come to understand that his/her role might include a responsibility that the civil and human rights of all individuals are not unjustly restricted from leisure expression and that people have full accessibility in order to realize their leisure needs.

Leisure Careers Involving an Enabling Process

In the immediate future, recreation and leisure personnel will be giving careful consideration to incorporating more fully an enabling process to extend the leisure service delivery continuum to include a spectrum of programming that will account for a wider diversity of human expression and encouragement of individual responsibility for leisure choices. This process recognizes three important considerations: (1) no one agency, relying on its own resources, can possibly meet all the leisure needs of a community; (2) individuals can effectively describe and express their leisure needs and interests, and (3) the professional recreator, acting as a catalyst, serves as an interface between participant groups and all the leisure opportunities and resources available to them.

The enabling concept of program delivery serves both as a process and political strategy. The typical facility management perspective which has dominated the recreation and park movement for over 50 years and is characteristic of an activity oriented and centralized agency service delivery approach makes assumptions of client groups' recreation needs and provides leisure opportunities within a limited knowledge framework. In the past 20 years colleges and universities have primarily had the task of preparing individuals for a career within this perspective of program service.

Such a facility oriented perspective is no longer seen as the only professional preparatory approach for several reasons. The dominant detracting views include a program mentality which results in recreation personnel being responsible not with the development of people, but with the management of a center or referral service or activity dissemination operation—not with service to the community or enabling independence and self-reliance, but with supervision of grounds or computer print-out sheets. Such an approach is ecologically unsound, results in participant dependency, fragments the recreation experience from the rest of a person's total development, and results in the agencies "fitting people in" to predetermined behavior patterns based on archaic roles no longer functional or acceptable.

The emerging leisure service professional will serve more as a coordinator, arbiter, enabler, and even advocate to ensure that the civil and human rights of all individuals are not unjustly restricted from leisure expression. Additionally, professional responsibility will include the assurance of people's full accessibility to community facilities and programs in order that their leisure needs may be actualized.

Limits to Growth

Since the first Earth Day was held on April 22, 1970, the environmental impact of decisions made on our growth patterns—including housing, production and manufacturing, waste disposal, transportation, nuclear energy, and recreation—has steadily increased. We have all learned about the interrelated life support system that exists on earth and the dangers of unrestricted growth. The recreation professional in the years ahead will become a more viable part of the community to the extent he or she participates as a team member with others in a mutual approach facilitating life enhancement for everyone. Recreators cannot continue to arbitrarily encourage some forms of human expression while denying others without understanding the environmental and human developmental impact and worth of such decisions.

Misguided Altruism

As the recreation and park movement approaches its second centennial of the provision of organized community recreation, a shift in the widely accepted discretionary time philosophical and direct service operational perspective must be replaced. A new form of altruism and concern for others needs to be adopted which encourages adjustment and flexibility of people to the carrying capacity of various leisure settings and promotes self-reliance. Altruism is only possible in the future on a small scale, in certain situations, and with small groups. Indeed, various forms of altruism create a dependent relationship between the service provider and user or recipient. By acting as an enabler, recreators become stewards of an individual's right of leisure expression and responsibility for understanding the impact and relationship of one's decisions in the community as a whole.

Existing bases for examining the recreation and leisure service career potential provide only a limited understanding of the future possibilities of professional service. Our evolving society is unfolding new institutional forms and arrangements and opportunities for human expression. The career aspirant may find a field which doesn't resemble the existing knowledge base as practiced by current professional recreators or even the historical roots of the development of organized recreation as documented in textbooks. The focus of the recreation and park movement in the future may well be centered on the need for understanding all aspects of our social and physical environments and the movement's ability to merge with other human services to create an opportunity system serving the paramount goal of human development.

PRACTICE AND PROMISE OF THERAPEUTIC RECREATION

By Suzanne Harsanyi

Therapeutic recreation offers diverse career potentials in the traditional clinical settings and municipal recreation programs and also in nursing homes, old age homes, delinquency and prison programs, private treatment programs, and a variety of health-related agencies. The information here provides a look at present practices and career potential within therapeutic recreation services offered in institutions.

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Reading the current journals and literature relating to therapeutic recreation gives the impression that we are quite an advanced state of the art. National and regional conferences show an impressive array of the latest research and trends of the field, like leisure counseling, relaxation, techniques, resocialization process, biofeedback, and many others. Compared to the arts and crafts and bingo games of the past, we made much progress in a relatively short time.[1]

Still, we should not forget that these sophisticated practices concern only a small segment of actual therapeutic recreation service delivery. The majority, as I see it from my practitioner's viewpoint, are still struggling with understaffing, underfinancing, and a generally "low among priorities" condition. It is to the credit of the perseverance and dedication of therapeutic recreation professionals that, in spite of all, therapeutic recreation is "alive and kicking" and steadily advancing.

This "state of the practice" overview is based on conditions as I saw and experienced them, throughout years in the field. For a common measuring rod of what fits under therapeutic recreation services I used a fellow practitioner's definition: "The therapeutic recreation service consists of prescribed and voluntary activities which are designed to promote the constructive use of leisure time, physical well being, and resocialization."[2]

Where Are Services Offered?

Services that fulfill the above criteria—and sometimes even more sophisticated ones—are usually found at institutions such as psychiatric hospitals, physical rehabilitation hospitals, chronic disease hospitals, convalescent and old age homes, schools for the retarded and emotionally disturbed, special camps, group homes, and halfway houses. Many general hospitals are still only providing it for their pediatric patients. Therapeutic recreation is also provided in the community. Sponsored by private agencies, benevolent associations, and cities and towns —often through their recreation agencies—a variety of programs are provided fitting the above definition, for noninstitutionalized special populations. Since the implementation of PL 94-142 is under way and a statewide study of these community programs is pending, I will limit my discussions to institutions.

Administration

Comparing notes with other therapeutic recreators, we soon find out that what one can do in one facility might not go in another. Every institution and agency has its own way of setting up an organizational chart, chain of command, and control of the purse string. One of the most disturbing facts is the complete lack of job level standardization and stratification. In some institutions a person with little educational background will

be called a director, while at another agency someone with a bachelor's degree will be only an aide, because recreation was not considered a profession when the job specifications were written up. Indeed, lucky are the ones who can run their own department, responsible directly to the administrator, rehabilitation chief, or town manager. In many cases, therapeutic recreation is still under the direction of another discipline like occupational therapy or social work. I have no quarrel with either of these professions, but I am convinced that therapeutic recreation is a separate, independent discipline that should be administered as such.

Therapeutic recreation services are found under a variety of names. In psychiatric hospitals, they will be usually under the umbrella of "activity therapies." Divided into various specialities, the creating pursuits are often quite separate from the sports, games, and social skills—making an unnecessary rift between the complementing elements of recreation. Whether they complement or compete depends on the knowledge and understanding of the person who coordinates these services. In physical rehabilitation facilities, we find therapeutic recreation under rehabilitation services, as one of the therapy services. Administered usually by a physician and surrounded by task-oriented and objected measurement using professionals, therapeutic recreation has a great opportunity—and a great challenge. While there is more understanding and support by co-workers than in most other facilities, there is always the temptation of falling into the mold of one or the other co-disciplines simply because of the frustration of marching to a different drummer, being called a therapy but not operating on prescribed sessions—basis.

Therapeutic recreation services are administered in a variety of ways in chronic hospitals and convalescent homes. There might be a separate department in some, under the volunteer services in others, while still others employ program directors—especially when the state makes it mandatory for licensure. Responsible to the director of nursing or the assistant administrator, or the rehabilitation service coordinator, staff members are often under the command of two or three different persons, making innovative, creative, and up-to-date service delivery extremely difficult.

In schools for the retarded and emotionally disturbed, therapeutic recreation is used for many purposes, from improving coordination to promoting emotional growth, from behavior modification to social skills. The quality of these services strongly depends on the order of priorities and how they are integrated into the total program.

Therapeutic recreation is usually an important part of the program at special camps, groups homes, and halfway houses. In most places it is closely integrated into the daily living arrangement, and the staff practices role blurring. Therapeutic recreation is not called or designated as such; it is part of the total life situation.

In day care centers or day hospital programs run by rehabilitation, extended care, or convalescent facilities we find therapeutic recreation services at a varying degree. In some the whole program centers around a balanced daily living style. If coordinated well, therapeutic recreation is an equal partner with other therapies and services to meet the clients' total needs. At others, therapeutic recreation is relegated to be a "filler" between other therapies and activities. Day care centers and day hospitals are comparatively new in the service delivery system and are still in a state of development.

Financing

Until recently therapeutic recreation services in most agencies were not directly charged. Usually they were calculated into the institution's total budget, just like nursing, social services, and many other services and commodities. Part of the daily fee was supposed to cover the per-client expenses of running the therapeutic recreation services. Needless to say, this system puts the provision of therapeutic recreation at the mercy of each institution's administrator or governing body. If they believe therapeutic recreation is important, they will see to it that an adequate percentage will go to support it. If not, they can always find an excuse why there is not enough money in the till for staff and materials for therapeutic recreation. In some states, where a hospital cost commission superimposes its will, the decision of allocating money for therapeutic recreation is even more complicated. Some convalescent homes have a habit of subsidizing their expenses for therapeutic recreation materials by the sale of craft items. (While some residents might get a good feeling knowing that their handiwork brings in money, for many true creativity will be exchanged for conformity or their work will be quietly "touched up and redone" by the program director in order to make them salable.)

Lately, in some agencies, therapeutic recreation services are directly charged. Under the scrutiny of the third party payer, this process must be carefully planned, executed, and documented. Therapeutic recreation services can be regarded as active treatment, therefore chargeable, if they are:

1. Provided under an individualized or diagnostic plan
2. Reasonably expected to improve the patient's condition or for the purpose of diagnosis
3. Supervised and evaluated by a physician.[3]

Another method of financing therapeutic recreation services, especially in a day care or out patient situation, is to join together with other needed therapies and submit the total bill. The received payment is then distributed according to the part each played in the schedule of the client.

Still another way to secure funds for therapeutic recreation services is to call it something else. Due to the still prevailing "work-ethic" prejudices toward the role of recreation, sometimes the only way to secure needed money is to shift the focus to educational or rehabilitation aspects, conveniently not mentioning therapeutic recreation. Special camps for the handicapped themselves "outdoor

education centers"; various programs in rehabilitation, though clearly fitting into the realm of therapeutic recreation principles and practices, are getting financial support because they are called "avocational counseling" or "social skills rehabilitation for the newly handicapped."

There is nothing wrong with this approach—as long as we know that by any other name, we are still providing therapeutic recreation services and not starting a new discipline.

Staffing

Financing considerations pretty much determine staffing patterns. Since there are no general rules as to the number of patients per recreator or any nationally accepted standard about qualification requirements, the number and quality of therapeutic recreation staff will depend on the knowledge and appreciation of each agency's decision making body. In hospitals and rehabilitation facilities, we can usually find recreators with at least a bachelor's and more often a master's degree. These are the places where therapeutic recreation departments function with therapists, supervisors, and aides. Titles may vary, but the basic pattern remains —a director and his or her staff plans, implements, and evaluates the therapeutic recreation program and works with other disciplines as members of the treating team.

In convalescent homes, the situation is quite different. Like in the old days of the one room schoolhouse with one teacher, these facilities often try to get by with the least financial effort, expecting one person to take care of all the recreational needs of an institution. Some states have regulations about the number of patients per program director (for instance, Connecticut requires one person's 30 hour week for each 60 patients). If a larger number of patients indicates the hiring of another recreator, this person will be treated as another, separate program director, not as a staff member under the first director. Democratic as it may seem, this system can play havoc with program planning, implementation, and resource distribution. To make things worse, a degree in recreation is not required to fill these positions. Often on-the-job training is the only preparation for the position. There are, of course, exceptions to this rule and there are convalescent homes and extended care facilities with highly qualified staff.

Schools for the retarded and emotionally disturbed followed educational models, and recreation personnel must find their niche—sometimes as teachers, sometimes as specialists, program coordinators, coaches, or counselors. The title is only the "cover of the book." What's important is what is practiced under the title.

Special camps and group homes seldom have a separate therapeutic recreation department. Instead, therapeutic recreation personnel are part of the total staff, usually functioning as a team.

Evaluation

Goal-oriented services are measured by the rate their goals are met, or at least by the number of ways explored and provided to reach these goals. When it comes to therapeutic recreation, this process can become quite complicated. Evaluation for therapeutic recreation should include programs, staff performances, and effectiveness to patients/clients. If we visit ten institutions where therapeutic recreation services are provided, we will find ten different ways of evaluation. From a simple attendance and service-provision record to the filling out of long state-specified forms, we can find a multitude of ways that serve the purpose to some degree. However, a truly effective and somewhat standardized method is yet to come.

Not that we lack models. In recent years professional literature abounds with well worked out systems. Carol Peterson clearly stated the principles in her Program Planning and Evaluation workshop material.[4] For psychiatric settings the CERT Scale[5] was developed by Parker and others and for physical rehabilitation facilities a fine model is offered by Keith's paper, "Program Evaluation."[6] For evaluating the cost factor, in addition to the other components, Morrison's "input-output model"[7] can be utilized. However, the actual use of these methods is not widespread yet, mostly because of the lack of sufficient staffing.

Staff Preparation

Therapeutic recreation is a specialty of the field of recreation. As such, it requires all the basic knowledge and skill of a good recreator plus the specialized know-how of the therapeutic aspects, the nitty gritty of the health field's terminology, methods, and ways of operation.

With the proliferation of recreation curricula offered at colleges, most programs include a few courses regarding special populations and claim that their students are prepared for therapeutic recreation. If they do receive a job in that field they will be working side by side with nurses and occupational, physical, and speech therapists who spent four to six years doing nothing else but preparing for their clinical work. Compared to them, the recreators are usually far behind in knowledge of anatomy, terminology, and etiology. They are at a disadvantage when it comes to treatment plan coordination, reporting to the team, or documentation. Though the practice of internship helps somewhat to narrow the gap, an eight to ten week, on-the-job training is hardly sufficient to make up the difference.

Still, these are our best prepared future professionals. There are other ways—or shall I call it short cuts—to preparation for a therapeutic recreation position. Junior colleges, offering two-year programs, turn out candidates usually well versed in practical matters. Unfortunately, nursing homes and convalescent homes, where the bulk of therapeutic recreation openings are at present, often find even an associate degree too costly to hire and settle for a high school education with some practical training. Requirements may vary from state to state; for instance, in Connecticut the needed training period is two weeks at a state specified facility.

Let us also remember that there are many related fields from which staff might be selected. The spectrum of creative therapies calls for expertise in one or another skill—be it music, art, movement, or drama—which we usually associate with recreation. These areas are often taught in other than recreation curriculum; so are horticultural therapy and industrial art and vocational counseling. But when it comes to the job market, graduates of these programs often vie for the same jobs as the recreation majors.

The basic cause of confusion is the lack of clearly defined standards as to what kind of knowledge and skills should be required for the various job types and levels in therapeutic recreation. We can see the difference in the quality of staff and services in states where the practice of therapeutic recreation is regulated by state licensure, as in California. But the majority of states are far from this, leaving the level of preparation up to each individual's ambition and decision, with the clear understanding that the education will not necessarily lead to commensurate job opportunities.

Needs

Unlike the earlier days, when patients stayed longer in hospitals, now the emphasis is on shortening the time of institutionalization. Soaring medical costs and better utilization of out patient services resulted in admitting only individuals with the more severe conditions. Third party payers, as well as growing consumer awareness, are demanding clearly defined quality control. Advanced medical techniques and the more generally practiced team approach expect a high level of more specialized education from staff.

What does all this mean for therapeutic recreation? It spells out the need for an updated repertory of programs and methods to make an impact on sicker people in shorter time. It implies the establishment of a referral system, a link-up with community services to secure a continuity of therapeutic recreation services for discharged patients/clients. There is more need than ever to have proper preparation that enables us to communicate and work side by side with other clinical disciplines and to provide the kind of documentation and evaluation that is meaningful and acceptable by professionals, consumers, and third party payers alike.

Recommendations

My description of current therapeutic recreation practices is not intended as a criticism or downgrading of our profession. Rather, it is a close and realistic look at how things are—compared to how things should or could be.

The question is: how to improve? Many of the proposed new methods of service delivery, documentation, and evaluation depend on well-educated staff in sufficient number, which in turn depends on adequate financing. This comes at a time when high medical costs are becoming public enemy No. 1. How to break the vicious circle?

We must start the change with our own self. Take a hard, searching look and be willing to pay the price for professionalism—by thorough preparation, by a willingness to serve above and beyond the call of duty, by accepting standards of competency and a code of ethics, and by agreeing to a system of peer control to keep our ranks free from those who do not live up to these requirements.

Our next move should be making contacts with legislation, starting on the state level. Using every available method of persuasion—from letter writing campaigns to lobbying—we must convince our government that therapeutic recreation is an important avenue of rehabilitation and should be implemented only by competent persons. Registration and/or licensing must be our goal, if we are to survive among the already well established health care professions. To those who might say that this is a task for our national organization, I can point out that it is in process. However, success depends on the work carried out on state level. The strength and effectiveness of any organization rests with the willingness of its members to shoulder their share of the responsibility.

We must also keep up an active public relations campaign. Visibility, education of our citizens, and making inroads through the media is an important part of our work. There are still too many people who have little understanding or appreciation for the meaning of leisure and the role of the recreation professional.

Methods of professional preparation should be reevaluated and redesigned to meet expected future needs. We should accept the fact that we will need fewer degreed professionals, with better qualifications, and more paraprofessionals, with well-spelled-out standards of practice for what is to be expected of each.

Those who are already working in the field have the responsibility of keeping up with the fast changing trends, utilizing every opportunity of continuing education, documenting their work, and harmonizing the constantly appearing new needs in their practice with the current research and methodology of the profession. Let us follow Meyer's advice:

> "If we are to be successful, accepted, contributing members of the team, and a qualified, competent professional, we must keep informed, learn new ways, refine old ways, closely observe what we do and record what happens, and share our findings. We must be willing to extend ourselves beyond where we are right now and become what we say we profess to be."[8]

The recreation profession in general should acknowledge the fact that therapeutic recreation is moving out of the institutions and into the community. As the effect of PL 94-142 reaches wider proportions, the old "token" programs for the handicapped just won't do. Therapeutic recreators and community recreators must learn to cooperate and work harmoniously with each other. If they don't other professions will step in.

Last, but not least, let us recognize the tremendous importance of good leisure habits in everyone's life and put the emphasis on educating the public about it. Recreation—well understood and properly practiced—is the proverbial ounce of prevention that is worth a pound of cure. We must

be aware of the value of every aspect of recreation and become an advocate of its practice, in our own community, in our own life. I am strongly convinced that a wholesome leisure philosophy, well understood and practiced, would keep a lot of people out of hospitals. We would need fewer therapeutic recreators and more leisure educators and recreation service providers of all kinds.

Therapeutic Recreation—The Promise

Among the complex needs of today's society, the issue of the quality of life is often mentioned. Nowhere is it more threatened than in the life of our special populations. Of all the clinical services, therapeutic recreation is the only one that addresses itself to this unique need and attempts to do something about it. With tools as simple as a game of cards to as sophisticated as applying the Gestalt principle in leisure counseling, therapeutic recreators use their skills and resources to bring about results contributing to raising the level of the individual's quality of life. We should never get so engrossed in the process that we forget what the ultimate goal is.

It is the most important aspect and contribution of our profession as a whole, and therapeutic recreation has the responsibility to fulfill this promise of a quality life to those who — for physical, mental, or social reasons — cannot acquire it for themselves.

It is a demanding task and a great challenge. Those who answer its call must be willing to see the gap between the practice and the promise to undertake the hard work that eventually can narrow and even close it.

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[1]Gerald Hitzhusen (editor), *Expanding Horizons in Therapeutic Recreation—IV*, Columbia, Missouri: University of Missouri, 1977.

[2]Charles W. Christy and Spud Ventzell, "Therapeutic Recreation," Office of Community Recreation Service, Concord, New Hampshire, 1975.

[3]Richard Patterson, "The Development of a Self-Sufficient Therapeutic Recreation Service," paper presented at the 1975 National Recreation and Park Association Congress, Dallas, TX, October 1975.

[4]Carol Ann Peterson, "Program Planning and Evaluation," workshop material, 1975 National Recreation and Park Association Congress, Dallas, TX, October 1975.

[5]Robert A. Parker and others, "The Comprehensive Evaluation in Recreation Therapy Scale," Horizon West Therapeutic Recreation Symposia, Los Angeles, CA, 1977.

[6]Robert Allen Keith, "Program Evaluation," Horizon West Therapeutic Recreation Symposia, Los Angeles, CA, 1977.

[7]Richard B. Morrison, "Evaluating Therapeutic Recreation—An Input-Output Model" from *Dialogues in Development*, New England Therapeutic Recreation Pre-Institute Proceedings, Durham, NH, 1977.

[8]Lee E. Meyer, "A View of Therapeutic Recreation: Its Foundations, Objectives, and Challenges" from *Dialogues in Development*, New England Therapeutic Recreation Pre-Institute Proceedings, Durham, NH, 1977.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT:
CONTINUING EDUCATION NEEDS

By J. Kip Hulvershorn

Professional obsolescence can be prevented by continual training and updating of skills and understandings. A study in Nebraska examined the self-perceived continuing education needs of leisure service professionals. Reported here are the needs and the preferred techniques for meeting them. Continuing education opportunities for those in leisure services can be combined with courses for those in other professions since many of the needs are common.

In this world of rapid change, professional obsolescence can only be avoided by continual training and updating of skills. In order to be effective, continuing education activities must be directed toward needs. Individuals respond to needs when they can recognize that need as it relates to their work. In Nebraska, a recent effort was made to identify those needs as perceived by recreation and park professionals.

Continuing education activities for recreation and park professionals are conducted in Nebraska through the same mechanisms that are common in other states. The state associations conduct workshops on a sporadic basis while the Community Resource and Research Center of the University of Nebraska conducts approximately six workshops per year.

In order to determine the self-perceived continuing education needs of professionals throughout the state, a survey was conducted. The questionnaire was mailed to 196 professionals taken from the membership roster of the Nebraska Recreation and Park Association. A total of 143 usable questionnaires were returned. The data were analyzed through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences technique.

A questionnaire was developed which consisted of sections on background information, continuing education experiences, areas of knowledge perceived as helpful in job performance, and personal comments. In the areas of knowledge section, specific questions were asked on 45 tasks potentially performed by recreational and park personnel. These tasks were grouped under the specific categories of personnel management, public relations, finance and budgeting, recreation programming, records and reports, areas and facilities, and planning and evaluation. Individuals receiving the questionnaires were asked to check, columns regarding whether or not they occasionally performed, regularly performed, or never performed each of these tasks. They were asked further to indicate whether or not they felt additional training in these same areas was needed.

In addition to finding out the self-perceived continuing education needs, several other types of information were sought by the study. A profile of park and recreation personnel in the state was developed. Individuals were asked to indicate the techniques for continuing education which were most acceptable and which were preferred. Finally, individuals were asked for their preferences as to time of year programs are conducted.

As indicated in Table 1, the highest response on the survey in terms of self-perceived need was for programs in the designing of areas and facilities. Several other areas received a high percentage of response. These include working with consultants, studying new trends and approaches, and the inventorying and analyzing of programs and facilities. The latter two have facility as well as programmatic implications.

The area of evaluation is related to several other needs with a high rate of response. Personnel evaluation was the second most cited need. Program evaluation and the development of evaluation instruments also received frequent responses.

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Basic management skills cluster into a third area. Preparation of the budget document, suggesting of budget information, evaluation, and both short-range and long-range planning were indicated frequently as continuing education needs.

It is interesting to note that programming skills were not ranked significantly as a continuing education need. Outdoor education skills were the only programming area receiving any major attention. This either suggests that respondents were comfortable with their existing level of program skills or they do not feel them to be as significant need as other areas such as planning, evaluation, management skills, and others.

Eight different continuing education formats were suggested by the questionnaire. Individuals responding indicated that the week-long workshop was the program they preferred, as indicated in Table 2. Of particular interest, the professional meeting was the least preferred format. Other popular formats included the use of library resources and evening classes.

The winter season was indicated by far the best time for continuing education programs in Nebraska with 62.9% preferring this time of year. Programs conducted in the spring were ranked second.

Respondents were asked the extent of employer-paid expenses to participate in continuing education. It was felt that such an arrangement would suggest the attitude of the employer toward staff improvement with ultimate implications toward program improvement. One expense-paid workshop or conference a year was provided for 42.4% of the individuals responding. Two or more such programs were provided for 39.0% of the respondents, but there was little support for professional magazines, journals, texts, resource materials, and/or inservice training.

The responses indicate that continuing education opportunities could be combined with professions of similar interests. For example, the planning, designing, and facility development needs are common to needs in the environmental design professions.

Table 1

Rank Order of Continuing Education Needs

Task	Percent
1. Assist in the Design of Areas and Facilities	31.5
2. Evaluate Personnel	28.7
3. Prepare Budget Document	28.0
Work with Consultants	28.0
4. Study New Trends and Approaches	27.3
5. Evaluate Programs in Agency	25.9
6. Develop Long-Range Plans	23.8
Suggest Budget Information	23.8
7. Give Talks, Speeches on Department	23.1
Conduct Outdoor Education/Nature Programs	23.1
8. Develop Evaluation Instruments	22.4
9. Inventory and Analyze Programs and Facilities	21.7
10. Establish Inventory Procedures	21.0
Recruit, Hire, and Interview	21.0
11. Develop Short-Range Plans	20.3

Table 2

Rank-Order of Preferred Continuing Education Techniques

Continuing Education Format	Number	Rank
Week-Long Workshop Program	59	1
Library Resources	54	2
Evening Classes	45	3
Independent Study and Seminars	42	4
Independent Study	39	5
Weekend Program	38	6
College Courses	27	7
Professional Meetings	12	8

Adult educators, community educators, and community developers participate in similar evaluation procedures. Continuing education activities could be developed sharing these resources.

Management and other business professions have skills in management, budgeting, personnel functions, and others. The transfer of this expertise to the recreation and park professional is a need as indicated by the survey.

A concerted effort is needed to organize the various groups providing continuing education. The American Association for Leisure and Recreation, National Recreation and Park Association, various state organizations, the extension service, and community resource centers should direct their continuing education programs toward needs.

If individuals are going to participate and learn from the continuing education program they must feel a need for the particular area of content. The program must then be developed around these felt or self-perceived needs. There is a continuing need to identify self-perceived needs in order to develop continuing education programs for recreation and park personnel.

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